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ABSTRACT

This collection of conference papers includes: (1) "Theories, Evidence, and Practice in Foreign Language Teaching" (Richard Schmidt); (2) "Teaching Korean Grammar in Context: -myen and -ttay" (Sahie Kang); (3) "Teaching Politeness Routines in Korean" (Ho-min Sohn); (4) "Vocabulary-Building Activities" (Boyang Park); (5) "Implementation and Evaluation of a Task-Based Approach to the Teaching of the Korean Language" (Youngkyu Kim, Dong-Kwan Kong, Jin-Hwa Lee, and Young-Geun Lee); (6) "Effects of Task Complexity on L2 Production" (Young-Geun Lee); (7) "Recognition and Retention of English Loanwords by Learners of Korean" (InJung Cho); (8) "The Number Concept of Korean People" (Sunny Jung); (9) "The Film, the Poem and the Story: Integrating Literature into the Language Curriculum" (Ann Y. Choi); (10) "Exploring the Possibilities of WBLT for Operational Testing Purposes: Web-Based Korean as a Foreign Language Testing" (Siwon Park); (11) "Increasing Korean Oral Fluency Using an Electronic Bulletin Board and Wimba-Based Voiced Chat" (Sunah Cho and Stephen Carey); (12) "Interactive Online Exercises: Retention of Non-Heritage Learners in a Mixed Class" (Hye-Won Choi and Sunghee Koh); (13) "Using HyperStudio for Teaching Korean" (Eun-Hee Koo); (14) "Developing a Business Korean Course Based on a Systematic Approach" (Andrew Byon); (15) "Two New Publications for Intermediate Level Korean" (Kyungnyun Kim Richards); (16) "Language Shift in Bilingual Students: A Sociolinguistic Survey of Korean-American College Students" (Steven K. Lee and Ruth Ahn); (17) "Recent Trends in Foreign Language Teaching in the United States: The Role of Heritage Learners" (Dong Jae Lee); (18) "Korean Language Education in New York City Public Schools" (Bongsoon Yow); (19) "An Analysis of Errors in Speaking Practice" (Sang-Il Lee); (20) "An Error Analysis in Relation to Typological Differences" (Boyang Park); (21) "Issues of Heritage Learners in Korean Language Classes" (Hi-Sun Helen Kim); (22) "Heritage vs. Non-Heritage Issues Revisited" (Clare You);

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(23) "The Degree of L1 Interference among Heritage and Non-Heritage Learners of Korean: Do Heritage Learners Have Advantages over Non-Heritage Learners?" (Jung-Tae Kim); (24) "English-Speaking Students' Written Language Development in Korean in a Korean/English Two-Way Immersion Program" (Joung Hoon Ha); (25) "Cross-Cultural Variations in Personal Essays: Second Language Writing by American Learners of Korean as Compared to Native Koreans' Writing" (Ooyoung Che Pyun); (26) "Reflective Journal Writing in the Korean II Class" (Hye Young Chung); and (27) "Socio-Pragmatic Functions of the Interactive Sentence Ender -ney from the Politeness Perspective" (Soo-ah Kim Yuen). (Papers contain references.) (SM)

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Volume 6

August 2001

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THE KOREAN LANGUAGE IN AMERICA

VOLUME 6 AUGUST 2001

Papers from the Sixth Annual Conference and Teacher Training Workshop on the Teaching of Korean Language, Culture, and Literature

University of Hawaii at Manoa, August 2-5

EDITED BY

JOE JUNGNO REE

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Editor's Remarks

The sixth volume of *The Korean Language in America* (note the slight face-lift) is a collection of the papers presented at the 2001 annual conference and teacher training workshop of the American Association of Teachers of Korean (AATK), which was held at the Center for Korean Studies, University of Hawaii at Manoa, from August 2 through August 5. Of the thirty-five papers, some did not submit their written versions. This year's conference was held jointly with the International Association of Korean Language Education (IAKLE), which is headquartered in Korea. However, the nineteen papers that the IAKLE colleagues presented are not included in this volume.

As it has been for the past few years, the papers on technology and web-based instruction stand out in number. This is indeed encouraging because we can rest assured that teachers of the Korean language, culture, and literature are not lagging behind the rest of the technology world today. A gradual increase in the number of papers that involve the classroom-based or action research is also a welcome sign. We need more of hard, field-oriented research. It seems that problems associated with heritage learners of Korean are perpetual. Not surprisingly, we see included in this volume also several papers that address issues of heritage learners.

The reader will agree with me that the papers on sociolinguistic issues as well as linguistic analysis in the context of language teaching are also welcome additions. Again, we need to have included many more of papers on such topics. What makes this volume particularly attractive is the inclusion of a paper on Korean language programs at the high school level.

With regard to the degree of editorial streamlining, the manuscripts ranged from extensive to minimal. In one or two cases, I took the liberty, exercising the editor's prerogative, of revising the title slightly to better reflect the content of the paper. I hope the authors will forgive me. I regret that parts of some manuscripts that required editorial attention were left unheeded. I equally hope that the reader will be forgiving and tolerant.

This year we were extremely fortunate to have special lectures from two distinguished scholars in the field of second language. Regrettably, however, Professor Richard Schmidt, who delivered a keynote address on a fascinating topic, was not able to provide us with a full version of his presentation. The lecture by Professor Michael Long, who is a leading authority on *task-based language teaching*, had to be taped because of his previous engagement away from the island. We hope to have the written version of his hour-long lecture included in one of the future volumes.

I would like to thank all the contributors to this volume. I would also like to express my appreciation to the four anonymous reviewers of the abstracts. Above all, on behalf of the American Association of Teachers of Korean, I would especially like to offer my deepest gratitude to the Korea Foundation for providing us with the necessary funds to publish this volume.

Tallahassee, Florida
August, 2001

Joe Jungno Ree

Part I

Keynote Address

Theories, evidence, and practice in foreign language teaching

Richard Schmidt
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Abstract

There is no generally accepted theory of second language acquisition (SLA). Indeed, the major competing theories conflict in terms of basic assumptions concerning what language is and how it is learned. One might conclude, therefore, that SLA theory is not merely incomplete but also internally contradictory and generally irrelevant to FLT. This would be an unfortunate conclusion, but it is not necessary. If one focuses away from ontology towards empirical issues and views a theory as a set of laws (hypotheses that have been or can be verified empirically, in the spirit of Spolsky, 1989), it is possible to identify a fairly large number of empirical findings that qualify as having been solidly established. This presentation will provide an account of several fairly general principles that fall within the category of "generally accepted findings" –with particular attention to the notion of "black-boxing" and the ways in which these findings relate to best practices in foreign language teaching.

I. Spolsky's (1989) attempt at a general theory (some examples):

Condition 1
Language as System condition (necessary): A second language learner's knowledge of a second language forms a systematic whole.

Condition 2

Native Speaker Target condition (typical, graded): Second language learner language aims to approximate native speaker language.

Condition 23
Native Pronunciation condition (typical, graded): The younger one starts to learn a second language, the better chance one has to develop a native-like pronunciation.

Condition 24
Abstract Skills condition (typical, graded): Formal classroom learning of a second language is favored by the development of skills of abstraction and analysis.

II. The current scene: UG, cognitive theory, connectionism/emergentism, functional perspectives, sociolinguistic perspectives, sociocultural theory, interactionism, postmodernism

III. The relevance of research and the issue of black-boxing:

"Research refers to systematic enquiry and investigation that contributes to the knowledge base of a field, knowledge that provides a principled basis for making decisions about policies, decisions, and actions." (TESOL Research Agenda Task Force," Research Agenda – Year 2000 version, draft G, April, 2000)

"Academic knowledge is now generally recognized to be a social accomplishment, the outcome of a cultural activity shaped by ideology and constituted by agreement between a writer and potentially skeptical discourse community ... One of the most important realizations of the research writer's concern for audience is that of reporting, or reference to prior research." (Hyland, 1999: 341)

"Block deals with the question of accepted findings by using the term 'blackboxing,' citing Latour as the source of the concept. By this term is meant the tendency to cite publications available in the literature as corroboration for some position without making explicit the details of those publications to the readers. Exploiting blackboxing in this way is termed a positive modality, an approach to which we have all become accustomed in reading articles in which some substantive declarative statement is accompanied by several references, putatively supporting that statement. A 'negative modality' exists when the purported corroborative evidence is subjected to evaluation." (Sheen, 1999: 368)

"Providing evidence for a claim is one of the differences between rationalist scientific practices (which is to say, scientific practices) and non-scientific belief systems ... Scientists do not 'blackbox' to make their work more convincing to readers. They cite the work of other scientists as a (widely accepted) way of meeting some of the requirements concerning evidence in scientific discourse." (Gregg, Long, Jordan, & Beretta, 1997: 541)

"Learners' first languages are no longer believed to interfere with their attempts to acquire a second language grammar, and language teachers no longer need to create special grammar lessons for students for each background." Dulay, Burt, & Krashen, 1982: 5

"A further extension of the hypothesis that attention is required for all learning is that what must be attended to is not just input from one channel as opposed to another or stimuli important to one task as opposed to another, but also different features of 'the same' input... If true, the hypothesis that no learning of correlated stimulus attributes occurs without attention means that in order to acquire phonology, one must attend to phonology; in order to acquire pragmatics, one must attend to both linguistic forms and the relevant contextual features; and so forth. Nothing is free." Schmidt, 1995: 16-17.

"The foundations of the hypothesis in cognitive psychology are weak; research in this area does not support it, or even provide a clear interpretation for it." Truscott, 1998: 103.

IV. 50 GENERALLY ACCEPTED FINDINGS (??) CONCERNING SECOND AND FOREIGN LANGUAGE LEARNING

Factors related to social context:

- The fundamental function of language is communication within a social context.
- Individual attitudes towards languages, varieties, language learning, and teaching methods arise within a social, historical, and political context.
- Community attitudes towards languages and varieties generally favor standardized varieties, official languages, languages associated with tradition, and languages with large numbers of speakers. But resistance and covert prestige are additional opposing factors.
- Attitudes towards languages, particular varieties, and language learning are strongly influenced by attitudes towards the community of speakers of the language.
- The second or foreign language classroom can also constitute a community.

Individual differences:

- Older is better in the short run; younger is better in the long run.
- The effects of age on SLA are strongest for pronunciation; weakest for lexis.
- Aptitude, attitudes, and motivation are systematically related to learning rate and ultimate attainment in adult SLA.
- Ability to use language varies in accuracy, complexity, fluency, and communicative effectiveness.
- People are motivated to do things that are interesting, relevant to their goals (instrumental, knowledge, communicative, etc.), and enjoyable.
- Motivation is also affected by expectations of success or failure, self-confidence, anxiety, and other factors, as well as social factors such as student-teacher and student-student relationships.

- Different learners use different learning strategies. More successful learners use a broader range of strategies more flexibly.
- Language aptitude includes (at least) the sub-components of sound discrimination (oral mimicry ability) and verbal memory ability.
- Language learning is enhanced when learning opportunities match learner's strengths and preferences. (S31)

Linguistic aspects of SLA:

- Interlanguages exhibit both systematicity and variability at any time in their development.
- Systematicity and variability are found at every level: phonological, morphological, syntactic, pragmatic.
- Learners exhibit systematic differences according to different L1/L2 configurations.
- The closer two languages are to each other (genetically, typologically, lexically) the quicker one can learn the L2 (positive transfer condition), at least in the beginning. (Cf. S34)
- Unanalyzed language (memorized chunks) is useful to meet initial communicative needs and is related to both fluency and idiomaticity at even the highest levels of proficiency, but analyzed language is necessary for creative language use.
- Creative language use requires both analysis (breaking units into constituent parts) and synthesis (combining analyzed units to create new utterances).
- Constructions that involve changes only in initial or final position are easier than those that involve disruption of strings and internal movement.
- Unmarked parameter settings are generally favored over marked settings. (S39)
- High salience, high frequency, and semantically transparent constructions (e.g. ING) are favored over low salience, low frequency and semantically opaque constructions (e.g. 3rd singular –S).

Developmental considerations:

- Learners do not learn isolated L2 items one at a time, in additive linear fashion
- Learners rarely if ever move from zero to target-like mastery of new items in one stop. Backsliding and restructuring are common.
- Both naturalistic and classroom learners pass through developmental sequences that are generally imperious to instruction.
- Learners vary in their receptive and productive skills. Receptive skills usually develop before productive skills and usually develop to a higher level. (S8)
- Second language development includes the process of automatization at all levels (phonology, syntax, pragmatics, etc.).
- Accuracy is generally greater on tasks performed after planning than on tasks with no planning.

General principles of learning:

- Exposure to comprehensible input is necessary but not sufficient for SLA.
- People learn what they pay attention to and do not learn much about the things that they don't attend to.
- Both implicit learning and explicit learning are possible. Implicit learning is more typical of young learners; explicit learning more characteristic of older learners.
- Some aspects of language are (and perhaps must be) learned unconsciously.
- Some aspects of language are (and perhaps must be) learned consciously.
- Retreat from error is facilitated when negative evidence is available and attended to. (monitoring condition, noticing the gap)
- There is a fundamental difference between knowing about a language and knowing (i.e. being able to speak, understand, read/write) a language.

- The power law of practice: plotting the log of reaction time against the log of time-on-task results in a straight line.
- Transfer of training (from one task to another) is common when tasks rely on common underlying principles, but such transfer is neither instantaneous nor perfect.

Factors related to input, interaction, and instruction:

- Variation in both the quantity and quality of input affects SLA.
- Comprehensible input is generally more valuable that incomprehensible input.
- Negotiation for meaning results in both interactional and elaborative modifications of the target language that enhance comprehensibility.
- Both a classroom focus on form and negotiated interaction can (and often do) lead to learners noticing non-salient forms in input.
- Both a focus on form and negotiated interaction can (and often do) lead to learners noticing differences between their output and the output of native speakers and other models.
- Given the same access to communicative language outside of class, instructed learners progress faster and reach higher levels of ultimate attainment than purely naturalistic learners.
- Formal classroom learning is assisted by analytical skills.
- The more time spent learning any aspect of a second language, the more will be learned. (S51)
- The more time spent practicing new skills, the more automatic these skills become.
- Textbook rules are often descriptively wrong, theoretically unmotivated, and/or psychologically unreal. They may, nevertheless, be pedagogically useful.

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Part II

Approaches to the Teaching of Grammar and Pragmatics

Teaching Korean Grammar in Context: Teaching of *–myen* and *–ttay*

Sahie Kang
Defense Language Institute Foreign Language Center

Introduction

Over the centuries, grammar has been taught to improve language learners' ability based on various reasons. Among them are:[1]

1. The study of grammar is important simply because language is a supreme human achievement that deserves to be studied as such.
2. The study of grammar can be an important vehicle for learning to study something the way a scientist does.
3. The study of grammar will help form the mind by promoting "mental discipline."
4. The study of grammar will help students score better on standardized tests that include grammar, usage, and punctuation.
5. The study of grammar will help people master another language more readily.
6. The study of grammar will help people master the socially prestigious conventions of spoken and/or written usage.
7. The study of grammar will help people become better users of the language, that is, more effective as listeners and speakers, and especially as readers and writers.

However, decades of research have suggested that grammar taught in isolation has little, if any, effect on most students' learning for target language proficiency. Numerous researchers (Macauley 1947, Elley et al. 1976, McQuade 1980) during the twentieth century indicated that there is little pragmatic justification for systematically teaching a descriptive or explanatory grammar of the language, whether that grammar be traditional, structural, transformational, or any other kind.[2]

---

[1] Weaver (1996) pp. 7-8

Despite these results of research demonstrating its lack of practical value, language teachers certainly have reasons to continue teaching grammar separately from four language skills, reading, listening, speaking and writing. Especially when the language is genetically unrelated to the learner's mother tongue, many language teachers feel obliged to teach grammar overtly assuming that learners would not understand and utilize it unless they are taught systematically.

Nevertheless, experienced students at Defense Language Institute (DLI) who seemingly have mastered grammar points have often experienced difficulty in using them in proper situations, in communicating with native speakers, or in understanding them with four different skills. With the new curriculum, *teaching grammar in context*, which has been implemented since 1997 at DLI, the teaching of grammar has been more successful. It has been well received by students because it allows students to function in real life situations, and it elevates students' motivation level. Rather than giving tedious grammar instruction and drills, instructors help students to function in the target language. Above all, the method has raised students' speaking proficiency levels significantly during the last 4 years.[3]

Although the presenter agrees with the viewpoint of teaching grammar explicitly, it seems to be a matter of how to organize and present the grammar and how to have learners utilize it. For example, grammar points **–myen** and **–ttay** in Korean are often considered difficult to learn not because of their forms and conjunctions but because of their pragmatic functions which differ from English counterparts, if there are any.[4] If we could present a grammar point in a way that students can actually grasp its pragmatic function as well as its structure, students would use it effectively even outside their classrooms.

To lay the groundwork for a more effective approach, this paper will address the teaching of grammar from the perspective of adult learning theory. Then, this paper will offer practical ideas for teaching grammar not in isolation but in context, so students can actually communicate with native speakers by using appropriate grammar patterns in different kinds of functional situations with **–myen** and **–ttay**. In order to teach grammar in context, it is necessary to introduce them and utilize them in real world situations where all four skills are integrated. For example, if a person wants to buy a house, he/she reads an advertisement, calls the agent to ask for more information, listens, writes down key information, and finally decides on the house. Also it would be more effective to introduce related grammar points together rather than introduce them separately because students can compare their functional differences at the same time and would understand them more easily.

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[2] Weaver (1996), pp. 23

[3] Since the introduction of the new curriculum at DLI, students' proficiency levels of reading and listening have equally been raised significantly. Although there are many other factors which have contributed to the rise of proficiency levels, teaching vocabulary and grammar in context is definitely the driving force.

[4] Strictly speaking, I think, there are no English counterparts for these two forms.

In addition, this paper demonstrates two ways of teaching: the deductive approach and inductive approach, which are given in a detailed step-by-step description in the following sections.

Adult Learning Theory

Often in language classrooms, especially in grammar sessions, we forget that adult learners are not like children who are assumed to be in a blank state absorbing any and all information. Boyian and Kang (1995) summarized characteristics of adult learners:

1. Adults prefer to be self-directed: They are less amenable than children to control exerted by a teacher-authority, who makes all decisions regarding what is to be learned, at what rate, and in which sequence.

2. Adults come with life experience that can serve as a base for relating new learning: Fixed pre-packaged curricula which do not take experience into consideration are less effective than the participatory and experiential settings of group problem-solving and simulations, where learners can engage in hands-on activities with relevance to real life.

3. An adult's readiness to learn is based on his or her perceived role in life, in society, and on the job: A person will be much more motivated to learn something he or she sees as relevant to tasks to be performed eventually.

4. Adults have a problem-solving orientation to learning: They will learn because they perceive a gap between where they are not and where they need to be, in order to be competent.

All of these characteristics suggest that adult learners will learn effectively in relevant context by using their own experiences, knowledge, and problem-solving skills. Naturally, it can be assumed that adults will learn more effectively if they are put in real-world context. Similarly, grammar can be learned successfully if it is organized and presented in the context of a real language world. In many cases, grammar points are introduced in seemingly natural conversations, but the typical pattern is that explanations were given, and then some pattern drills with different sentences were given to students, all in the absence of meaningful contexts. After mastering drill exercises, it is often observed that the learners don't know where to utilize certain grammar points and make many errors without knowing the reason.

Teaching –myen and –ttay in context

In this paper, **–myen** and **–ttay** are chosen because American students often misunderstand the usages of these two grammar points. Typically, these two grammar points are introduced by the translations "*if*" for **–myen** and "*when/while*" for **–ttay** in most of the textbooks.[5] Without any pragmatic explanation, students often are confused and misused them because of their similarity in function. Their functions do overlap in some situations but not all the time. Also, at least the English translations seem to suggest that these forms have English "counterparts." However, that is not really the case, as alluded to above. This means that students would make errors unless the differences in pragmatic functions are clearly taught.

As Korean language teachers, we often notice errors or misuses of **–myen** and **–ttay** in students' speech. Many times, students do not understand why their usage of **–myen** and **–ttay** is incorrect, however, although teachers provide some functional explanations and explicit error corrections. Because these two forms overlap in usage in many cases, it is very challenging even for the teachers to give clear functional explanations.

The following are transcripts of a couple of examples that were recorded during "one-on-one speaking practice hours."

Example 1.

A. Chwumal-enun pothong mwo haseyo?

---

[5] *Korean Grammar for International Learners* (p.13 & 126) provides translations of **–myen** as "if" and **–ttay** as "when." *Pathfinder in Korean, Korean I, and Korean in Context* give both translations "if" and "when" for **–myen**, but they do not offer any explanation of when to translate it as "if" and as "when." Other textbooks merely provide Korean sentence examples of when **–myen** or **–ttay** are used without functional explanation. Therefore, it is basically the teacher's job to provide different pragmatic functional explanations.

B. Chwumal-enun pothong mani chako, ppalayhako, kakkum younghwa-lul pomnita. Kuliko ilyoil-enun, ilyoilpam-enun --kakkum hankwukmal kongpu-lul hamnita. Hwu-e kyokwaseo-lul kapang-e neosumnita. Woenyahamyeon, wolyoil-e hakkyo kamyen kyokwaseo-lul ise pelimnita.

A. An-kamyen an-ise peliciyo?

B. ???

A. What do you usually do on weekends?

B. On weekends, usually I sleep a lot, do laundry, and watch movies sometimes. And, on Sundays, on Sunday nights, and I study Korean sometimes. After that, I put the textbook in my bag. That's because sometimes I forget the textbook when I go to school on Monday.

In Example 1, a native speaker would say kal-ttay instead of ka-myen in this context. It was mutually understood that the student goes to school every Monday. What the student actually says with kamyen misleads the listener that he does not go to school every Monday, but if he does, he always forgets his textbook. Or, it could mean that he would realize he forgot the textbook once he gets there. But within the whole context of the conversation, the student did not mean that.

Example 2.

A. cikum salko-itnun cip-i ettayo? Choayo?

B. Ne. Achwu chosumnita.

A. Ku cip-i ettekhe saynkyeknunci selmyen-hay chwuseyo.

B. Che-chip-un ilchungchip-imnita. Cip-aph-e khun matang-i issumnita. Hyunkwan-e tule kal-ttay, woenccok-e puek-i itko, olunccok-e kesil-i issumnita. Puek-e .....

A. How do you like the house you live in now? Is it good?

B. Yes. Very good.

A. Please explain what the house looks like.

B. It is a one-story house. In front of the house, there is a big yard. When you enter the front door, the kitchen is on the left side, and the living room is on the right side. In the kitchen, ...

In Example 2, a native speaker would say tule kamyen instead of tule kal-ttay in this context. What the student actually says with **–ttay** makes the listener expect certain actions at the time when the speaker enters the house, such as taking off shoes: Hynkwan-e tule kal-ttay, sinpal-ul peseya hamnita (When you enter the front door, you have to take off your shoes.) However, it was a description where no action is expected.

Example 3 below indicates where the confusion comes from. Although the native speaker asked with **–myen** what the student was going to do after the graduation ceremony was over, the student answered with **–ttay** with the function of **–myen**.

Example 3.

A. Kulem, cholepsik-i kkunna-myen mwuessul hal yechengimnikka?

B. Cholepsik-i kkunnal-ttay theksas-e kayahamnita. Woynakamyen, 23ilputhe swuep-i sichakhayse kayahamnita.

A. Kulayo? Kulentay, cholepsik-i kkunnal-ttay kipun-i ettelkkayo?

B. Che kipun-iyo? Cholepsik-i kkunnal-ttay aju kippulkepnita. Tto, chokum sulpulkemnita.

A. When the graduation ceremony is over, I have to go to Texas. The reason is that the class starts on the 23rd---I have to be there.

A. Is that so? Well then, how would you feel when the graduation ceremony is over?

B. My mood/feeling? When it is over, I will be very happy. And, a little bit sad.

When the native speaker asked a questions with **–myen** at the beginning, the intended meaning was what the student was going to do after graduation. Although the student understood the function of **–myen** well enough, he use **–ttay** instead of **-myen** to express a future activity. After the native speaker gave an implicit correction with the meaning of "at the time when the graduation is over," he used it correctly.

These examples indicate that students did not grasp the pragmatic functions of the two grammar points clearly. Often they think –**myen** is used to show conditional clause, and –**ttay** is used where "when" is used in English. However, there are cases where both of them are used interchangeably as in the following authentic newspaper article.

Ippalchilyo hwancha manumyen chuwka halak

Chikwauisa Edwod Ples ssi(55)ui chwuchang-e ttalumyen, chusiksichang-i phoklakha-myen chia-ka kalachikeka inmomi silinun tung sthlesseng chiamwunchelo chikwalul channun hwancha-tul-i moleyulko, pantaylo chwusiksichang-i hwalki-lul ttil-ttay-nun hwanchatuli hyenchehi chwuletuntanun kessita.

Tto, Chwusiksichang-I hanchang hwalkilul ttil-ttay-nun chia kyochengina skeyling tungui miyongchikwachilyoto hwalpalhi iluechintako hanta. ....

(Sunday Newspaper, Hankookilpo, June 8, 2001, p.28)

When there are many dental patients, stock market goes down

According to Dr. Edward Prus's opinion (55 yrs. Old), a dentist, when the stock market goes down, patients throng to the clinic with dental diseases such as fractured teeth or sore gums, which are caused by stress.. On the other hand, when the stock market grows lively, the number of patients decreases noticeably.

And, when the stock market grows lively, orthodontic treatment and scaling are done more often (than before). ...

As a summary, the following pragmatic rules can be provided to students.

-myen is used when its clause shows a condition for the following clause: the action in the preceding clause takes place first and then the action in the following clause takes place.

-ttay is used when its clause shows a time or duration of the action taking place, and both actions in both clauses take place almost at the same time frame.

When the preceding clause shows a time or duration of the action taking place and provides a condition for the following clause, both of them can be used.

Obviously, however, learners wouldn't understand what these rules mean unless they actually used them in context.

Real World Tasks

In order to teach the grammar points in context, real world tasks would give students chance to utilize the language and let them use their life experiences, knowledge, and problem-solving skills. Through the problem solving of real world tasks, learners keep utilizing grammar points as well as group of words. Such a process helps students store new knowledge in long-term memory rather than in short-term memory which psychologists say would go away mostly within 24 hours. Task-based instruction is well known to put students in real world context in which they can learn the language in a more meaningful way than with grammar translation and audio-lingual methods.

The ways to organize tasks largely depend on whether to teach grammar points from the beginning as traditional grammar teaching, or not to teach them at all as naturalists suggest. This paper takes both suggestions. In other words, some grammar points need to be introduced from the beginning if there are no counterparts in students' mother tongue (in our case, English), e.g. Korean subject markers, object markers, and indirect object markers. Some grammar points do not need to be introduced explicitly from the beginning if there are counterparts in the learner's native language, e.g. tense markings. In such cases, students can induce the grammar rules and functions in the context on their own. Thus, the first option is called Deductive Way, and the second is Inductive Way.

Also the choice between the Deductive Way and the Inductive Way could depend on the students' learning styles. It is well known that *analytical* learners are less tolerable of ambiguities than *global* learners. Analytic learners like to study from charts rather than to make educated guesses on the unknown elements. On the other hand, global learners often enjoy ambiguities and do not stick to details. It would be natural that analytic learners would prefer the Deductive Way whereby they learn the rules first, analyze sentence structure based on the rules, and then interpret the text which includes such grammar points. Global learners would not mind reading a text which includes many unknown elements and to grasp the essential meaning.

Basically, however, language learning requires both analytical and global ability because language is a complex component of all those characteristics. When we even listen to any speech of our native tongue, we do not listen to all the words uttered. When we are tasked to listen or read some texts to catch the main idea, we just listen to the main idea, not all the details of structures and forms. Or when we are tasked to find out certain detailed information out of listening or reading a text, we often focus on the information and ignore other parts of the text. In order to be a better language learner, analytical students would need to explore more of ambiguous texts with unknown elements, and global students would need some fine-tuning on their structural knowledge. In other words, to strengthen their weaknesses, both deductive and inductive ways should be exposed to both types of learners.

Deductive Way

First, the different functions of the two grammar points are explained in English within a narrative or conversational context. The teacher provides functional explanations of the two grammar points in plain language. It is better to use the plain language than to use linguistic jargons because many American students are not familiar with them unless they have studied linguistics.

Second, the two grammar points are presented within a context of real language usage, i.e. conversation or passage either in listening or in reading a text. Then, students listen or read to comprehend the text. To comprehend the text, variety of activities can be associated with the text, e.g. matching a subtitle for each paragraph, fill the grid for essential elements, etc.

Third, students engage in real world tasks with four-skill (reading, listening, speaking, and writing) integration where all different pragmatic functions are involved. With different skills, vocabulary items and grammar points are utilized many times.

Finally, students do different role-plays in which different pragmatic functions can be used. These role-plays can be an individual presentation or a group demonstration. The final presentation will allow the teacher to check students' performances and errors and to give feedback to individual student as well as to the whole class.

Task 1: You are going to

Step 1:

Inductive Way

First, the two grammar points are presented within authentic reading or listening contexts without any explanation. Then, students listen or read to comprehend the text. To comprehend the text, variety of activities can be associated with the text, e.g. matching a subtitle for each paragraph, fill the grid for essential elements, etc.

Second, the teacher ask the students to figure out the pragmatic functions of the grammar points and come up with some rules or patterns in their own native language. Because this could be a quite challenging activity, working in small groups allow students to brainstorm with each other and get better results.

Third, students engage in real-world tasks with four-skill integration where all different pragmatic functions are involved. Again, vocabulary items and grammar points are utilized many times with different skills. Then they are stored in long-term memory.

Finally, students do different role-plays in which different pragmatic functions can be used. These role-plays can be an individual presentation or a group demonstration. The final presentation will allow the teacher to check students' performances and errors and to give feedback to individual student as well as to the whole class.

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TEACHING POLITENESS ROUTINES IN KOREAN

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The aim of this presentation is to share and discuss with current and prospective classroom teachers of Korean some ideas about what the concept of linguistic politeness is, what linguistic devices for politeness are available, how language-specific devices and their sociolinguistic uses are crucially interrelated with the cultural perspectives of the speakers, what the functions of "politeness routines" are, and how they can be taught.

1. Linguistic politeness

Maintenance of politeness is an integral part of any successful interpersonal communication. Politeness is particularly sensitive and significant in intercultural communication, in that cross-cultural encounters take place among people with distinct linguistic forms and rules of speaking.

Expressions of linguistic politeness, both verbal and non-verbal, are ubiquitous across all societies, although their forms and functions are different in varying degrees from language to language and from culture to culture. It is essential, therefore, for intercultural interlocutors to be aware of the underlying cultural differences and to use proper linguistic and sociolinguistic rules, conventions, and forms appropriate to the target language and culture.

Language has essentially two functions—transmission or sharing of information, knowledge, and feelings on the one hand, and establishment, maintenance, and enhancement of human (social and interpersonal) relationships on the other. This distinction is particularly clear in interpersonal communication where both functions of language are conspicuous and interact delicately. Effective performance of the two functions of language is associated with two opposing sets of principles. For example, Lakoff's (1973) rule of clarity ("be clear") and Grice's (1975) Cooperative Principle (CP) with its four associated maxims of quality, quantity, relevance, and manner are relevant to the first function of language, while Lakoff's (ibid.) rule of politeness ("be polite") and Brown and Levinson's (1978, 1987) face-oriented politeness strategies, as shown below, are concerned with the second function of language.

(1) Lakoff's rule of politeness ("Be polite") and sub-rules

a. Don't impose on the addressee;
b. Give the addressee his/her options;
c. Make the addressee feel good.

(2) Brown and Levinson's politeness strategies

1st level: *Direct strategy*

2nd level: *Positive politeness strategies* (15 strategies)
e.g., Notice, attend to hearer's wants, needs, interests, goods
Include both speaker and hearer in the activity
Use in-group identity markers
Exaggerate interest, approval, sympathy with hearer
Seek agreement
Avoid disagreement
Give reasons

3rd level: *Negative politeness strategies* (10 strategies)
e.g., Be conventionally indirect
Give deference
Question, hedge
Apologize
Nominalize
Go on record as incurring a debt

4th level: *Off-record strategies* (15 strategies)
e.g., Give hints
Give association clues
Presuppose
Understate
Use metaphors
Use rhetorical questions
Be ambiguous
Be incomplete, use ellipsis

5th level: *No speech act*

Brown and Levinson assert that the more a speech act threatens the speaker's or the addressee's face, based on the speaker's intuitive calculation of the relative closeness or distance of his/her relations with the interlocutor, of the relative difference in their status, and the degree of the imposition caused, the more the speaker will wish to choose a strategy on a higher level. For instance, the circumstances for direct speech include cases (a) when the speech act is used for great urgency, desperation, or efficiency, or in the addressee's interest; or (b) where the speaker is vastly superior in power to the addressee. On the other hand, their last level of strategy is just to keep silent.

As I argued in Sohn (1988, 2001), most putatively universal proposals by Western scholars are only partially valid, in that linguistic politeness is viewed only as a feature of *strategic* language *use* in social interaction. Specifically, first, none of the afore-mentioned proposals touches on honorifics, either addressee or referent honorifics, in any systematic way. This is serious deficiency in that in languages like Korean and Japanese, utterances cannot be made without the speaker's determination of his/her speech levels during social interactions with the addressee. Second, the proposals are concerned only with the speaker-addressee perspective, while the speaker-referent perspective is generally ignored. Third, none of them brings up normative politeness use, in addition to strategic politeness use. Fourth, no proposal takes into account vertically oriented and/or collectivistically oriented societies in any explicit or implicit manner. In fact, very few proposals have discussed cultural perspectives in any significant way. In Chinese, Japanese, and Korean cultures, for example, imposing on or not giving options to the addressee is very natural and generally polite when the speech act is in the interest of the addressee, as when imposing upon the addressee to eat more.

In short, I argue that linguistic politeness is a significant feature of both language *structure* and *use* on the one hand and is used both *normatively* (obligatorily per discernment) and *strategically* (optionally and volitionally) on the other. I further argue that language-specific politeness devices and normative and strategic uses are crucially based on time-honored cultural perspectives. In addition, as an important social phenomenon and a facet of communicative competence and performance, linguistic politeness is both universal and culture-bound, in that its reflection in linguistic patterns and pragmatic usages manifests two-sidedness.

That is, I assume that there are universal linguistic devices for politeness that individual languages and cultures choose from. Also, the sociolinguistic rules and conventions of politeness language use in a linguistic community are based in large measure on universal pragmatic principles in language use, filtered by the underlying cultural perspectives such as social norms of behavior, value orientations, and cultural assumptions. For instance, a putatively universal principle is that an indirect speech act is appropriate in the request or refusal in order to mitigate or soften the act to some degree. An example of indirect speech act is in regard to request for information. I recently noticed the following message from a University of Hawaii professor to another, with a copy to me.

(3) Dick, Would it be out of line for me to ask what an average start up cost for Natural Sciences would be? John

The above kind of indirect speech act would be very frequent in Korean between distant adult equals or to a social superior. However, mismatches appear in several respects. First, the corresponding Korean forms are marked by appropriate social indexing for normative politeness. Second, when the same kind of request is made to an in-group junior or child, the speech act usually is relatively more direct. Third, first name basis between colleagues is an aspect of typical solidarity-based American culture, which is never shared by either Koreans or Japanese. This kind of mismatch is due to the difference in cultural perspectives.

Another example is that, some time ago, a U.S. military officer left a note in Korean as in (4a) on the door of my office.

(4) a. ". . . *nay ka tangsin ul encey po-l swu iss-sup-nikka? . . .*"
'(lit.) When can I see you?'

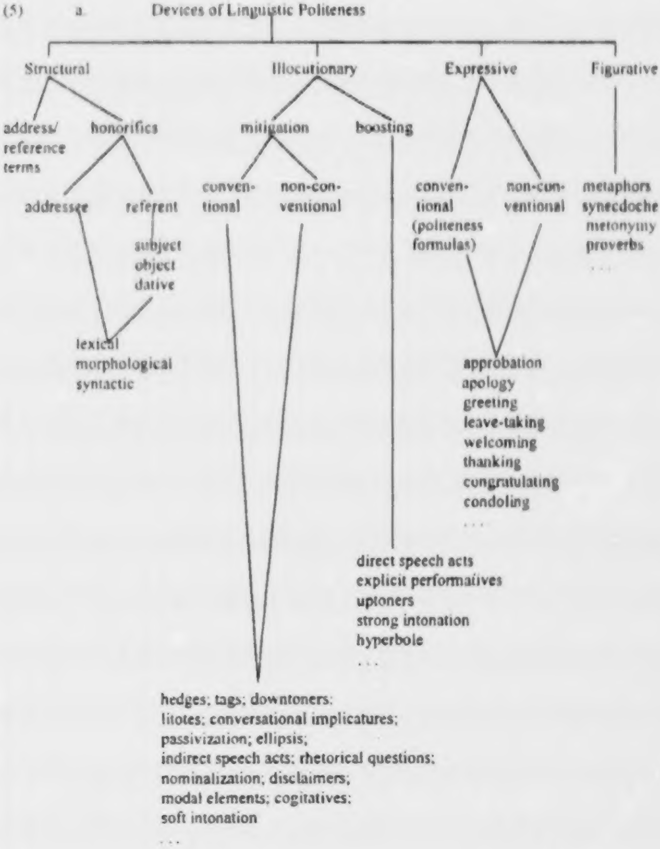
b. ". . . *(cey ka) kyoswu-nim ul encey poy-l swu iss-keyss-sup-nikka? . . .*"
'(lit.) When do you think I can see you?'

Native speakers of Korean immediately know that this grammatically correct expression, with the deferential sentence ender, is nevertheless impolite. First, the first pronoun *na(y)* should not be used toward a social superior; the humble form *ce(y)* must be used instead, but, in this case, the pronoun is usually omitted because it is contextually understood. Second, the pronoun *tangsin*, though it is the highest-level second person pronoun— higher than the plain form *ne* and the familiar form *caney*, still cannot be used to an adult social superior or equal. The person used it apparently because he thought the highest-level second person pronoun is appropriate in such a context. He was not aware of the sociolinguistic rule that no Korean second-person pronoun should be used toward a social superior or adult equal (except to one's spouse) in Korean and an appropriate third-person nominal such as *kyoswu-nim* 'professor" or *sensayng-nim* 'teacher' must be substituted for the pronoun. Third, the person used the plain verb *pota* 'to see' as in English, not knowing that the humble counterpart *poypta* 'to see (a higher person)' is appropriate in such a context. Fourth, for further politeness, it is a conventional strategy to add the modal suffix *–keyss* to the main verb, which denotes the speaker/hearer conjecture. Thus, (4b) is a corresponding polite expression.

Why is (4b) conceived and perceived as appropriate and polite by native speakers, while (4a) is not? It is because the relevant sociolinguistic forms, rules, and conventions are crucially correlated with the cultural perspectives of Koreans' relative hierarchism that senior persons should be treated appropriately with proper honorific forms.

As alluded to in the above examples, linguistic politeness is expressed in a wide variety of devices in all cultures and societies. In Sohn (1988, 2001), I proposed a universal framework of linguistic politeness devices that human languages utilize, as in (5).

(5) a.



The scheme in (5) consists of four major sets and many sub-sets of politeness-indicating devices. Which devices are given particular importance depends on the specific languages and cultures involved. In Korean, Japanese, and Javanese, for instance, structural devices including extensively hierarchical address/reference terms and honorifics are the most crucial devices of politeness, although other sets of devices are also extensively used. In the United States, honorifics are of minimal significance, while illocutionary and expressive devices receive greater importance. The various putatively universal proposals discussed above are relevant, in general, only to illocutionary and expressive devices. The politeness devices are realized as linguistic patterns and forms in each linguistic community. Use of such politeness patterns and forms in socio-culturally appropriate ways is controlled by various sociolinguistic rules and conventions of language use, both normative and strategic. Such rules and conventions are in accordance with the interactants' relative power and solidarity, speech context, and the nature of imposition, and universal pragmatic principles such as those proposed by Lakoff, Brown and Levinson, and some others, filtered by cultural perspectives such as culturally-bound norms of behavior, value orientations, and commonly-shared cultural assumptions.

2. Politeness routines

With the above background notion of linguistic politeness, in this section, I will limit myself to the discussion of politeness routines for pedagogical purposes. The term "politeness routines" used here refers to more or less conventionalized politeness speech acts used routinely in daily interactions in a society. Typically, they include speech act patterns where strong face-oriented linguistic politeness is called for, such as address/reference term usage, commands, requests, inquiries, promises, arguments, claims, complaints, apologies, refusals, compliments, compliment responding, offers, expressions of gratitude, congratulations, welcome, greeting, and leave-taking.

I will take up apologies in Korean in comparison with those in English, as an illustration. I believe that similar discussions can be made in regard to the other politeness routines. Olshtain and Cohen (1991) posit five strategies or patterns in the apology speech act set: two general strategies which depend less on contextual constraints and three situation-specific strategies, as follows.

(6) a. General strategies:

i. formulaic expression (explicit expression of apology)
ii. acknowledgment of responsibility

b. Situation-specific strategies:

i. explanation
ii. offer of repair
iii. promise of nonrecurrence

Olshtain and Cohen point out that in addition to the main strategies, there are ways in which the speaker can modify the apology either by intensifying it or by downgrading it. The conventional intensifiers in English include "really", "very", and "terribly". Thus, their English example of apology in response to forgetting a meeting with the boss is as follows. Notice that all the five strategies are incorporated.

(7) "*I'm really very sorry* (intensified expression of apology). *I completely forgot about it* (expression of responsibility). *The alarm on my watch didn't go off as it was supposed to* (explanation). *Is it possible for me to make another appointment? Can we meet now?* (offer of repair). *This won't ever happen again* (promise of nonreoccurrence)." (1991: 156)

In the same context, a male native speaker of Korean would say something like the following to a much higher male boss, although it may sound a little unnatural to many out of a specific context.

(8) "*cengmal coysongha-p-ni-ta* (intensified expression of apology). *kkamppak ic-ko iss-ess-sup-ni-ta* (expression of responsibility). *nul cal wulli-ten sonmok sikyey cocha allam i wulli-ci-l anh-ass-ketun-yo* (explanation). *coysongha-ciman encey tasi poy-l swu iss-ul-ci-yo? hoksi kwaynchanh-usi-ta-myen cikum-i-lato poy-l swu iss-keyss-nun-ci-yo?* (offer of repair). *tasi-nun i-len il-i eps-tolok cwuuy ha-keyss-sup-ni-ta* (promise of nonreoccurrence)."

Although the five strategies are also generally applicable to Korean, one may easily notice the great differences between the two communication patterns (e.g., use of honorifics, omission of 'I', politeness-indicating sentence enders, careful indirect speech acts in the offer of repair, etc. in Korean). If the speaker is a female, if the addressee is a colleague or a social inferior, or if the relationship between them is very close as between college classmates, the Korean pattern would have to be changed to a great extent.

In regard to the goals for teaching the apology speech act, Olshtain and Cohen propose teaching the two general strategies (the expression of an apology and the acknowledgement of responsibility) in the beginning level and the remaining strategies and intensification at higher levels.

Let us take up the formulaic expressions in Korean only. While English formulaic expressions of apology include "I'm sorry", "Excuse me", "I regret", "Forgive me", and "I apologize", etc. Korean has expressions such as *mianha~* 'sorry (lit. feel uneasy)', *coysongha~* 'sorry (lit. feel guilty)', *sillyeyha~* 'excuse', *sakwatuli~* 'apologize', *yongseha~* 'forgive', *cal-mot-ha~* 'make a mistake', etc. The most frequently used ones are *mianha~* and *coysongha~*. There are interesting restrictions in the usage of the two forms. First, observe the speech-level conjugations.

(9) a. *mianhapnita: mianhayyo: mianhaney: mianhay: mianhata: mian:*

b. *coysonghapnita: coysonghayyo:*
but not **coysonghaney: *coysonghay: *coysonghata: *coysong*

That is, *coysongha~* cannot be used to an intimate equal or a lower person in any context, that is, regardless of the severity of the infraction.

Second, *mianha~* cannot be used to in-group superiors even if the infraction is not severe. It may be used to out-group members, especially when the infraction is not severe. For example, when a student is late for class, he or she will use (10a), whereas when the teacher is late, he or she will use (10b).

(10) a. *nuc-ese coysonghapnita/coysonghayyo.*
b. *nuc-ese mianhayyo.*

The most frequently used intensifiers in Korean are *cengmal* 'very, really', *acwu* 'very, really', and *taetanhi* 'very, greatly'. There are certain co-occurrence restrictions between them and *mianha~* and *coysongha~*.

One thing I would like to stress again is that Korean communication patterns in the use of politeness routines are governed by Koreans' cultural perspectives, especially their value orientations. Koreans are relatively hierarchical and collectivistic in their verbal and non-verbal behavior. These value orientations are reflected not only in linguistic structure as in address/reference terms and honorifics, but also in various sociolinguistic uses in real contexts.

3. Teaching of politeness routines

Can politeness routines be explicitly taught? As indicated in Chick (1996: 344), it is general consensus among sociolinguists that explicit teaching of sociolinguistic conventions and rules is discouraged or ruled out. Chick quotes Gumperz and Roberts (1980: 3) as saying,

(11) "The conventions of language use operate within such a great range of situations and have to take into account so many variables. There is no neat equation between type of interaction and the conventions which an individual might use. Every piece of good communication depends upon the response and feedback which participants elicit from each other in the course of the conversation itself and so every speaker has to develop his [*sic*] own strategies for interpreting and responding appropriately."

On the other hand, sociolinguists generally recognize that sociolinguistic conventions and rules of different social groups can be learnt through awareness raising of one type or another. For instance, Gumperz and Roberts suggest involving both learners and native speakers in evaluative discussion of their interethnic encounters to raise their awareness of their own contributions to miscommunication. Wolfson (1989) and some others argue that learners' acquisition of sociolinguistic rules can be facilitated by teachers who have the necessary information and knowledge about speech acts, values, and patterns at their command.

While accepting fostering learners' awareness as a useful approach, I nevertheless subscribe to explicit teaching of politeness routines to adult learners of Korean. First, learning of politeness routines through awareness raising is time-consuming and can be fragmentary. Adult learners do not necessarily have an adequate awareness of what is involved in complex speech behavior. Hence, important speech acts that are not simply acquired over time must be taught for the learners to use them correctly and expeditiously. Second, politeness routines are largely conventionalized in usage and predictable to the language users. Thus, such more or less conventionalized expressions constitute a closed set and thus are teachable. Therefore, they must be taught systematically and intensively in various contexts lest the learners should use wrong forms inappropriately. Third, in learning politeness routines, a common source of miscommunication is sociolinguistic transfer, that is, the use of the rules of speaking of one's native language when interacting with members of another community. Explicit teaching will contribute to keeping learners from falling into such pitfalls. Fourth, there are some experimental studies on successful explicit teaching (Olshtain and Cohen 1990, 1991; Dunham 1992).

Techniques for teaching speech acts have been proposed. Olshtain and Cohen (1991) propose the following five steps.

(12) a. Diagnostic assessment
b. Model dialogue
c. The evaluation of a situation
d. Role-play activities
e. Feedback and discussion

Cohen (1996) quotes Dunham (1992) as describing ten techniques for teaching complimenting behavior.

(13) a. Reviewing how it is done in the native culture
b. Reviewing how it is done in the United States
c. Vocabulary phrase list
d. Student practice
e. Role playing in pairs
f. Teacher role play with students in front of the class
g. Projects in which learners must compliment native speakers
h. Students' oral reports to the class following their field experiences with native speakers
i. Connecting techniques to lengthen conversation
j. Paired interaction with complimenting and connecting techniques

The above techniques can be applied to teaching Korean politeness routines. Furthermore, adequate assessment tools need to be extensively developed (e.g., Hudson and Kim 1996). Needless to say, all these can be achieved only when both classroom teachers and pedagogical researchers in Korean spare no effort.

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Vocabulary-building Activities

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Introduction

I would like to introduce four vocabulary activities involving two-syllable Sino-Korean words. The purpose of these activities is for students to practice guessing the meanings of these words. In fact, there are a great number of Sino-Korean words in the Korean language because Koreans have used Chinese characters for written communication for almost two millenia. Among many kinds of Sino-Korean words, one to four-syllable words are common. Examples of one-syllable words are "방 (房) (room)," or "형 (兄) (older brother)"; two-syllable words are "서점 (書店) (bookstore)," or "철도 (鐵道) (railroad)"; three-syllable words are "귀금속 (貴金屬) (precious metal) or 대변인 (代辯人) (spokesperson)"; and four-syllable words are "다정다감 (多情多感) (sentimentality)" or "부귀영화 (副貴榮華) (riches, honor, and splendor)." The most common among these are two-syllable nouns.

Vocabulary Exercises

First, I would like to explain how two-syllable Sino-Korean nouns are formed from the semantic point of view. For example, the word, "군인(軍人) (service member)," is comprised of the two Sino-Korean characters, "군(軍) (military)" and "인(人) (person)." So, if students know the meanings of some other Chinese characters besides the meaning of the syllable, "군(軍) (military)," they can easily recognize the meanings of some Sino-Korean compound nouns having to do with "military." In case Sino-Korean nouns are not written in Chinese characters but rather in the Korean alphabet, which is common these days, if students know the meanings of Chinese characters, it is easy for them to guess the meanings of the Sino-Korean words out of context. In the following exercises students are supposed to guess the meanings of the Sino-Korean compound nouns from the Chinese characters whose meanings are already given. I think such exercises may work as an organizer, which is "part of a language learner's mind which works subconsciously to organize the new language system" (Dulay, Burt, & Krashen, 1982, p. 46).

Vocabulary Exercises

Exercise 1
Write the meanings of the following Sino-Korean words in English:

(1) 군모 (軍帽) (   ) (2) 군화 (軍靴) (   )
(3) 군복 (軍服) (   ) (4) 군대 (軍隊) (   )
(5) 군인 (軍人) (   ) (5) 군사 (軍事) (   )
(7) 군용 (軍用) (   ) (8) 군비 (軍備) (   )
(9) 군령 (軍令) (   ) (10) 군축 (軍縮) (   )

군(軍) --- Military

용(用) --- Use
축(縮) --- Reduction
대 (隊) – Group
비(備) --- Preparation
화(靴) --- Shoe

모(帽) --- Hat
사(事) --- Business
령(令) --- Orders
복(服) --- Clothes
인(人) --- Person

Completed Exercise 1

(1) 군모 (軍帽) (Military hat) (2) 군화 (軍靴) (Military shoes
(3) 군복 (軍服) (Military clothes) (4) 군대 (軍隊) (Military forces
(5) 군인 (軍人) (Service member) (5) 군사 (軍事) (Military affairs
(7) 군용 (軍用) (Military use) (8) 군비 (軍備) (Military preparations
(9) 군령 (軍令) (Military orders) (10) 군축 (軍縮) (Armament reduction

군(軍) --- Military

용(用) --- Use
축(縮) --- Reduction
대(隊) --- Group
비(備) --- Preparation
화(靴) --- Shoe

모(帽) --- Hat
사(事) --- Business
령(令) --- Orders
복(服) --- Clothes
인(人) --- Person

Exercise 2
Write the meanings of the following Sino-Korean words in English:

(1) 전선(電線) (   ) (2) 전력(電力) (   )
(3) 전보(電報) (   ) (4) 전기(電氣) (   )
(5) 방전(放電) (   ) (6) 전류(電流) (   )
(7) 전자(電子) (   ) (8) 정전(停電) (   )
(9) 전주(電柱) (   ) (10) 전화(電話) (   )

전(電) --- Electricity

자(子) --- Son

류(流) --- Current

선(線) --- Line
화(話) --- Talk
기(氣) --- Energy
력(力) --- Power
보(報) --- Report
주(柱) --- Pole
정(停) --- Stop
방(放) --- Release

Completed **Exercise 2**

(1) 전선(電線) (Electric line)
(2) 전력(電力) (Electric power)
(3) 전보(電報) (Telegram)
(4) 전기(電氣) (Electricity)
(5) 방전(放電) (Electric discharge)
(6) 전류(電流) (Electric current)
(7) 전자(電子) (Electron)
(8) 정전(停電) (Power failure)
(9) 전주(電柱) (Telephone pole)
(10) 전화(電話) (Telephone

전(電) --- Electricity
자(子) --- Son
선(線) --- Line
화(話) --- Talk
기(氣) --- Energy
력(力) --- Power
류(流) --- Current
보(報) --- Report
주(柱) --- Pole
정(停) --- Stop
방(放) --- Release

Exercise 3

Write the correct character combinations for the English phrases given below:

(1) Parents ( )
(2) Mother's affection ( )
(3) Mother and son ( )
(4) Mother and daughter ( )
(5) Mother's milk ( )
(6) Wet nurse ( )
(7) Maternal right ( )

모(母) --- Mother
자(子) --- Son
정(情) --- Affection
유(乳) --- Milk
녀(女) --- Woman, Daughter
권(權) --- Right
부(父) --- Father

Completed **Exercise 3**

(1) Parents (부모)
(2) Mother's affection (모정)
(3) Mother and son (모자)
(4) Mother and daughter (모녀)
(5) Mother's milk (모유)
(6) Wet nurse (유모)
(7) Maternal right (모권)

모(母) --- Mother
자(子) --- Son
정(情) --- Affection
유(乳) --- Milk
녀(女) --- Woman, Daughter
권(權) --- Right
부(父) --- Father

I gave **Vocabulary Exercise 1** to one section of my class, which was comprised of 10 students. It was after a ten-minute routine speaking activity. The students felt a little bored. After the students did the exercises rather quietly, they gave positive comments on the exercise, "I like it," "We need more like this," and "This way, I remember." However, another student's remark was that I should not provide Korean syllables like "모 (Hat)" or "화 (Shoe)" after "군 (Military)." He said the reason is that because the Korean spelling of the Chinese characters was given, he was looking for the corresponding syllables instead of looking for the appropriate Chinese characters. I thought that made a perfect sense. Therefore, I changed the format of **Vocabulary Exercise 2** as follows following his suggestion. Not surprisingly, I learned how to teach students from a student.

Revised Vocabulary Exercise 2

Write the meanings of the following Sino-Korean words in English:

(1) 전[redacted](電線) ( ) (2) 전[redacted](電力) ( )

(3) 전[redacted](電報) ( ) (4) 전[redacted](電氣) ( )

(5) [redacted]전(放電) ((6) 전[redacted](電流) ( )

(7) 전[redacted](電子) ((8) [redacted]전(停電) ( )

(9) 전[redacted](電柱) ( ) (10) 전[redacted](電話) ( )

전(電) --- Electricity

자(子) --- Son
선(線) --- Line
화(話) --- Talk
기(氣) --- Energy
력(力) --- Power

류(流) --- Current
보(報) --- Report
주(柱) --- Pole
정(停) --- Stop
방(放) --- Release

A few days later, I gave the revised versions of Exercise 2 and Exercise 3 to the same students. It was after they had done routine reading activities in their textbooks. It seemed that they were waiting for some other activities. After I passed out sheets to them, I let the students exchange their conjectures freely. They did these exercises with great interest. While doing the exercises, they exchanged their opinions actively. Some students asked themselves, "What is the electric son? Isn't it electron? Oh, that's right." They came up with the right answer. A student asked another student,
"'정전 (停電)' means stop electricity. What is that?" The student of whom the question was asked said, "Stop electricity is power failure." He also came up with the correct answer. A student talked about Question (6), "wet nurse", in Exercise 3. He said it was "모유 (母乳)." A student next to him said, "No, it is '

유모 (乳母)'," which was right. I think that he came up with the correct answer by thinking of the syllable order, milk [乳 (유)] and mother [母 (모)]. I found out that they answered almost every question correctly while I was checking their answers. After these exercises, the students seemed to feel that they had achieved something. The students' general comments on the revised exercises were "This is a lot better and very interesting," "We need something like this more," and so forth. I felt that the exercises were worth the time spent on them.

In my opinion, these kinds of deductive vocabulary exercises are necessary, especially in early stage of learning a foreign language because "a great deal of vocabulary must be acquired very early on at least at the recognition level if the students are to be successful with the natural approach" (Krashen & Terrell, 1983, p.91). I suggest that I had my students try out the above-described vocabulary-building exercises at the right time because they were in the early stage of the Korean basic course (about the 25th week of 63 weeks) when I gave the exercises to them.

Conclusion

Vocabulary exercises are not limited to the ones I introduced. Many different ones can be made for the students to have fun learning while analyzing syllables consciously. Tasks that cause learners to focus on conscious linguistic analysis (such as fill-in-the-blank with correct morphemes) invite monitoring. "Monitoring is the part of the learner's internal system that appears to be responsible for conscious linguistic processing" (Dulay, Burt, & Krashen, 1982, p. 58). I think after conscious linguistic processing, subconscious organization of the new language system occurs.

When foreign language teachers teach vocabulary, it would be more pedagogical and productive not to provide a list of vocabulary related to the lesson the students will learn. They should teach vocabulary through exercises or games, encouraging the students to think and learn on their own. I submit that the technique which the students will have acquired through activities such as the ones that were presented above will be useful when reading authentic materials such as newspapers or magazines.

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Part III

Methodology and Pedagogy

Implementation and Evaluation of an Approach to Task-based Korean Language Teaching

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Introduction

In recent years, there has been a call for task-based approaches to syllabus design and language teaching from a number of second language (L2) researchers, syllabus designers, and educators (see Breen, 1984, 1987; Candlin, 1987; Long, 1985; Long & Crookes, 1992; Nunan, 1989; Prabhu, 1984, 1987; Skehan, 1996a, 1998b; Willis, 1984). In task-based approaches to language teaching, tasks are used as a basic unit of analysis in syllabus design and instruction. The usefulness and importance of tasks as a unit of analysis in syllabus design and instruction has been well documented in the literature (see Candlin & Murphy, 1987; Crookes, 1986; Crookes & Gass, 1993a, 1993b; Long & Crookes, 1993; Nunan, 1993; Robinson, 1998; Skehan, 1998a; Willis, 1996).

Tasks as a Unit of Analysis in Syllabus Design and Instruction

Long & Crookes (1993), for example, argue that the choice of units of analysis is the most basic consideration in syllabus design because the chosen option will reflect the syllabus designer's or the teacher's belief in how people learn a L2, and affect the whole process of the curriculum. Long (1985 and elsewhere), particularly, in his proposal for Task-Based Language Teaching (TBLT), further argues for the advantages of using tasks as a unit of analysis in syllabus design and instruction as follows:

1) Learner needs can be identified in terms of target tasks, which learners might have to perform after or even during learning the language, thus matching syllabus content or classroom activities with the learner needs identified from needs analysis (NA).

2) While doing pedagogic tasks, students can also engage in meaning-focused interaction, obtaining more chances to make conversational adjustments (e.g., comprehension checks, clarification requests, and confirmation checks), which in turn may contribute to making input comprehensible (Gass & Varonis, 1994; Long, 1983; Pica, 1994; Pica, Kanagy & Falodun, 1993). As for the benefits of

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[1] In alphabetical order

conversational adjustments, Long & Robinson (1998) also reiterate that "modifications to the interactional structure of conversation that result from the negotiation work increase input comprehensibility without denying learners access to unknown L2 vocabulary and grammatical forms, as tends to occur through linguistic 'simplification', and provide important information about L2 form-function relationships" (pp. 22-23).

3) With various types of *focus on form* techniques appropriately used (Doughty & Williams, 1998), students can get feedback as frequently and effectively as possible, and in so doing their attention is momentarily drawn to a specific linguistic form, i.e., noticing in Schmidt's (1990 and elsewhere) term, in the context of otherwise meaning-focused communication (see Doughty, in press; Long, 1996, for review). Such negative feedback "draws learners' attention to mismatches between input and output, that is, causes them to focus on form, and can induce noticing of the kinds of forms for which a pure diet of comprehensible input will not suffice (e.g., items that are unlearnable from positive evidence or are rare, and/or semantically lightweight, and/or perceptually nonsalient, and/or cause little or no communicative distress)" (Long & Robinson, 1998, p. 23).

In sum, using tasks as a unit of analysis in syllabus design and instruction would help match syllabus content with learners' needs and provide learners with more opportunities to experience not only comprehension of input through negotiation for meaning but also feedback on production through focus on form and consequent interlanguage development or modification via noticing.

Task-Based Language Teaching

Long (1998, p. 42) describes steps in designing and implementing a TBLT program as follows:

1. Conduct task-based needs analysis to identify target tasks;
2. Classify into target task types;
3. Derive pedagogic tasks;
4. Sequence to form a task-based syllabus;
5. Implement with appropriate methodology and pedagogy;
6. Assess with task-based, criterion-referenced, performance tests; and
7. Evaluate program.

As a first step, learners' real-world or target tasks, which they eventually need to perform, are to be identified by task-based NA. The target tasks, once identified, can be grouped into relevant target task types, which are more abstract and superordinate categories. These target task types, however, are to be transformed into pedagogic tasks before being used in the classroom. It is the pedagogic tasks that learners and teachers actually work on in the classroom. One target task type can be realized by a series of pedagogic tasks that are gradually assimilated to the target task. These pedagogic tasks are then sequenced to form a task-based syllabus, which in turn is implemented with appropriate methodology and pedagogy, e.g., focus on form. Students' progress is assessed with task-based, criterion-referenced performance tests.

Implementation and Evaluation of Task-based Korean Language Teaching Modules

The following sections briefly describe how TBLT has been actually implemented in Korean language teaching at the University of Hawai'i at Mānoa (UHM), focusing on two task-based Korean pilot modules, as part of the project "Task-based Language Teaching in Foreign Language Education" currently being undertaken by a team of faculty members and graduate students at UHM, led by Professors Michael H. Long, Catherine Doughty, and Craig Chaudron (More information about this project is available on the Internet at http://www.lll.hawaii.edu/nflrc/tblt.html).

Task-based needs analysis and target task identification: Using two data collection methods (i.e., unstructured interviews and questionnaires), the first stage of the task-based NA was conducted. 25% of the total number of students taking Korean language classes at UHM in Spring 2000 were first selected by a stratified random sampling procedure and then interviewed. The findings from the transcribed interview data were then used in developing the questionnaire form. On the basis of the information from the questionnaire data, two target tasks, each of which comprised two task-based Korean-language pilot modules, were identified[2]: *Following street directions* and *Shopping for clothes*. The second stage of the task-based NA included a collection and analysis of target discourse data[3]. The Korean language target discourse data involving oral interactions between native speakers of Korean were collected for each task and subsequently transcribed for use in developing the Korean TBLT modules.

Development of task-based Korean TBLT modules: Based on (a) a set of guidelines for developing prototype task-based English-language modules, consisting of a series of seven pedagogic tasks (PTs), the last serving as an exit test, and (b) the results of the task-based NA carried out in Spring 2000, the Korean TBLT modules were prepared and implemented in Fall 2000. The modules included teachers' manuals, student workbooks, and teaching materials (e.g., audio tapes, OHP transparencies, maps, picture cards, etc.).

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[2] One target task initially identified was later replaced with another.

[3] Samples of genuine target discourse were also collected for the potential English-language prototype modules as the long-term goal of the project is the development of task-based NA procedures, prototype task-based nodules, etc. that can potentially serve as templates for other foreign languages.

Classroom implementation: One section of Korean 101 and two sections of Korean 201 participated in the pilot study. The three cooperating teachers had a training session, where they learned how to use the TBLT modules. Before the TBLT modules were implemented, the three classes were observed and audio-recorded to identify the characteristics of regular (i.e., non-TBLT) Korean classes. The week-long implementation of the TBLT modules, including task-based assessment, were observed and audio-recorded. Finally, after the implementation of the TBLT modules, the next regular Korean classes were observed and audio-recorded.

Evaluation: A preliminary evaluation of the TBLT modules was carried out using multiple sources and multiple data collection methods:

1) Korean graduate assistant (GA) discussions: Right after each TBLT session, the Korean GAs had a meeting to informally discuss their own class observation notes. Suggestions were made for the next session and for future work.[4]

2) Discussions with cooperating teachers: GAs had informal meetings with participating teachers. These meetings were recorded and notes were taken.

3) Analysis of student reaction questionnaires: Right after finishing TBLT sessions, students were asked to fill out questionnaires that were designed to evaluate the TBLT modules implemented. Two sets of questionnaires were prepared for the two target tasks. The two questionnaires followed the same format although there were some differences in actual questions. The students were given questionnaires corresponding to the TBLT module they had received. To facilitate students' retrospection, the teachers briefly reviewed each PT by presenting the materials used for it. When students answered all the questions on the PT, the teachers proceeded to the next PT and went through the same procedures. Survey responses to Sections A and B in the questionnaires were coded for statistical analyses using *Microsoft*

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[4] The suggestions were incorporated into revising the pilot Korean TBLT modules in Spring 2001.

Excel and *SPSS for Windows*. Responses to open-ended questions in Sections C and D were categorized and aggregated by two researchers.

Conclusion

This paper briefly described an on-going project on Korean TBLT at NFLRC, which is the first implementation of TBLT with tertiary-level English-speaking Korean language learners. A preliminary evaluation of the data collected from multiple sources (e.g., students, teachers and researchers) by multiple methods (e.g., questionnaires, unstructured interviews, class observations and conferences among researchers) provides empirical support that TBLT is a viable alternative approach to Korean language teaching and can provide a concrete model of TBLT implementation with wide applicability to college-level Korean language programs in North America.

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EFFECTS OF TASK COMPLEXITY ON L2 PRODUCTION

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In recent second language acquisition (SLA) research, there have been claims that the use of various types of tasks can facilitate second language (L2) development. These claims have motivated a number of studies that can be divided into two groups: one focusing on the linguistic environment that tasks can provide learners with during the interaction between learners and/or between learners and the teacher, and the other focusing on the effects of task types of features on learner output. The former has attracted a number of studies on the so-called negotiation or conversational adjustment (Gass, 1997; Gass & Varonis, 1985, 1986; Long, 1980, 1981, 1983a, 1983b, 1996; Mackey, 1999; Pica, 1987, 1994, 1996) while the latter has drawn studies examining the relationship between task types, task features, or task parameters/dimensions, and task performance in terms of accuracy, fluency, lexical variety and/or density, and syntactic complexity (Brown, 1991; Crookes, 1989; Duff, 1986; Foster and Skehan, 1996; Manheimer, 1993; Ortega, 1999; Robinson, 1995; Robinson, Ting, & Urwin, 1995).

In the meantime, some proposals have been made to use task as a unit of analysis in language teaching, i.e., task-based approaches to language teaching (Breen, 1984, 1987; Candlin, 1987; Long, 1985; Long and Crookes, 1992, 1993; Nunan, 1989; Prabhu, 1984, 1987; Skehan, 1996, 1998a, b). Among these, however, Long's and Skehan's share many things in common in terms of their psycholinguistic rationale based on SLA research, e.g., provision of acquisition-rich linguistic environment through (a) meaning-focused, or meaning primary, interaction leading to negotiation for meaning and/or elaborated input, and more feedback, (b) focus on form (Long, 1998; Long & Robinson, 1998), or "manipulation of attentional focus" (Skehan, 1996), thus likely to produce interlanguage (IL) change and development, and (c) respecting an individual learner's learning process, associated with learnability and teachability issues (Pienemann, 1984, 1985, 1989). Both Long and Skehan oppose synthetic syllabus types and employ tasks as a non-linguistic unit of analysis. To Long and Skehan, tasks are purely meaning-focused activities, and not 'structure-trapping' activities in Skehan's (1998b) term, in which tasks are used as a vehicle for grammar instruction as advocated by Ellis (1997; Fotos and Ellis, 1991, Loschky and Bley-Vroman (1993), and Nunan (1989). They both view language learning not as "a simple, linear, cumulative process" (Skehan, 1996), but as a rather complex psyocholinguistic maneuver, which needs not only analysis of language as a chunk, but also an attentional focus on specific linguistic forms in order to incorporate them into a learner's IL system, in otherwise meaning-oriented communication.

Long (1985, 1998) describes a number of steps in designing and implementing task-based language teaching (TBLT), i.e., task-based learner needs analysis, classifying target task types, deriving pedagogic tasks, sequencing to form a task-based syllabus, implementation, assessment, and program evaluation. Among them, the identification of objective criteria for sequencing pedagogic tasks and parameters/dimensions of task complexity and difficulty is considered essential in implementing TBLT (Long & Crookes, 1992; Robinson, 2001). While there have been various proposals for the criteria for grading and sequencing tasks, some researchers emphasized the importance of cognitive aspects of task. Robinson (2001, in press), for example, argues that task complexity, i.e., the cognitive demands of tasks, should be the sole basis of sequencing decisions in a task-based syllabus. He has also distinguished task complexity from both task difficulty, which is dependent on learner factors such as aptitude, confidence, and motivation, and task conditions, i.e., the interactive demands of tasks.

There have been a number of studies in this line of research. They have examined the effects of differing degrees of task complexity on various measures of learner output, e.g., accuracy, fluency, lexical variety and/or density, and syntactic complexity. Task complexity in turn has been defined by various dimensions such as number of elements, here-and-now vs. there-and-then, planning time, reasoning demands, competing demands of tasks, prior knowledge, number of steps involved in the execution of tasks, number of parties involved, existence of a clear chronological sequence, number of actions occurred at the same time, similarity among elements to distinguish, etc. (Brindley, 1987; Brown, Anderson, Shillcock, & Yule, 1984; Candlin, 1987; Crookes, 1989; Foster & Skehan, 1996; Lee, 2000; Long, 1985; Ortega, 1999; Prabhu, 1987; Robinson, 1995, 2001; Robinson et al., 1995; Skehan, 1998).

Despite the growing number of studies on cognitively defined task complexity and its effects on task performance, more empirical research on existing and possible dimensions of task complexity need to be done for us to reach a rigid and safe ground on which sequencing decisions should be based. In the past, for example, the dimensions of task complexity have been operationalized as two-fold, e.g., existence or non-existence of a given dimension, using two versions of a task. What then would be needed here is a study that employs one or more tasks, each having more than two versions with differing degrees of any dimension(s). For instance, we can design three different versions of one task type, which are differentiated in terms of degrees of the given dimensions of task complexity, and then examine whether these three versions will lead to qualitatively different language from each other. If we can show such a relationship between the different versions and learner production not only for a single task type but also another one, we will be in a better position to propose the dimensions of task complexity as an essential basis for sequencing decisions in TBLT as Robinson has argued.

THE STUDY

The study reported in the remaining part of this paper constitutes an effort to investigate the effects of differing degrees of task complexity on learner production. In this study, particularly, the degrees of task complexity were set as three-fold. The study was conducted to answer two general questions:

1. Do differing degrees of task complexity affect the accuracy and complexity of oral L2 production?
2. If yes, how different would accuracy and complexity be?

Hypothesis 1: There will be no differences in the complexity of oral production on simple, complex, and very complex versions of a task. The complexity of oral production will be measured by the following:

1. words per C-unit (W/CU)
2. inflectional suffixes per C-unit (IS/CU)
3. clauses per C-unit (C/CU)
4. coordination index (CI), or the number of independent clause coordinations divided by the number of combined clauses (clauses minus sentences)

Hypothesis 2: There will be no differences in the accuracy of oral production on simple, complex, and very complex versions of a task. The accuracy of oral production will be measured by the following:

1. error-free C-units ratio (EFCU/CU)
2. error-free clauses ratio (EFC/C)
3. correct particle use in obligatory and non-obligatory contexts (CorrPAR/CX)
4. correct inflectional suffix use in obligatory and non-obligatory contexts (CorrSUF/CX)

Participants and Research Design

The participants in the study were three KFL learners who are or were enrolled in advanced KFL course at the University of Hawaii at Manoa (UHM) (see Table 1).

Table 1: Participants' Bio-data

ID	Gender	L1	Ethnicity	Academic Status (Major)
P1	M	English	Korean	M.A. (Asian Studies)

P2	F	Japanese	Japanese	Ph.D. (Linguistics)
P3	M	English	Caucasian	Ph.D. (History)

The participants were asked to do two tasks, i.e., the three versions of the map task followed by the three versions of the car task, in the order given in Table 2. The sequences of the three versions of each task were counterbalanced to control for possible sequencing effects.

Table 2 Sequence of tasks

	Map task	Car task
P 1	acb	bca
P 2	cba	abc
P 3	bac	Cab

'a' stands for simple, 'b' for complex, and 'c' for very complex versions of each task.

Procedure

Two tasks were used for the study:

Map task

In this task, the participants were presented with three folders, each containing a map of an area of Seoul, and were asked to give directions from Point A to Point B, marked on the map. The same map was used for all three versions of the task, but they differed in terms of the distance between point A and point B (short, longer, longest), the number of left/right turns (two, five, eight), the presence of the buildings which could be used as a reference (yes, yes but not always, yes but not always), presence of the need to cross the road (no, no, yes). The instructions were read in English to the participant by the researcher:

"In each of these three folders, there is a map of an area of Seoul. Study the map carefully. Notice that there are two points, i.e., Point A and Point B, on the map. Suppose that somebody asked you for directions from Point A, where you are, to Point B. Try to find the shortest way and include as much detail as you can, so that the person who asked will know exactly how to get there."

Car task

In this task, the participants were again presented with three folders each containing four photographs showing the consecutive events leading up to a road accident involving model cars. They were then asked to describe how the accident happened. The three versions differ from each other in terms of the number and types of cars (two, three, and four; red, yellow, or blue; trucks, cabs, sedans, or vans), the number of pedestrians (zero, one, and two), the road conditions (three- and four-way intersections), and the moving directions of cars (Table 3). The instructions were read in English to the participant by the researcher:

"In each of these three folders, there are four photographs that reconstruct a car crash using model cars. Study the four pictures carefully. Then, act as if you are an eye witness and describe how the crash happened as clearly as you can, in other words, as if you were reporting the accident to the police. Remember to include as much detail as you can, so that the police will know exactly how the crash happened."

Table 3 Features of car task

	N of cars	Types of cars	N of pedestrians	Road conditions	Moving directions of cars
Simple task	2	Red truck Orange taxi	0	3-way intersection	L-turn Go straight
Complex task	3	Yellow taxi Dark yellow taxi Red taxi	1	3-way intersection	L-turn Stop, then Go straight L-turn
Very complex task	4	Light blue van Blue jeep Blue taxi with stripes atop Dark blue taxi with stripes atop	2	4-way intersection	L-turn L-turn, then Stop L-turn Go straight

The three versions of each task were examined for their face validity before the study began. Three faculty members of the SLS Department, who are most knowledgeable on this topic, were asked to examine the three versions of each task in terms of their relative complexity or cognitive demands.

Participant production was tape-recorded and transcribed. The tape-recording was conducted in an office at UHM. The researcher and a participant were seated at a table. Before starting each version of the task, participants were given two minutes for planning, and then, two more minutes for speaking.

Data Analysis

Data were coded by the researcher for eight different measures, as described above, i.e., the four accuracy and four complexity measures. Definitions of these measures are given below:

> C-unit or communication unit = one main, or independent clause, plus any subordinate clauses attached to or embedded in it (T-unit), or isolated phrase not accompanied by a verb, but which has communicative value (e.g., elliptical answers to questions).

Words = one of the eight categories provided by Sohn (1999, pp. 203-4): noun, pronoun, numeral, verb, adjective, determiner, adverb, and particle.

Inflectional suffixes in verbs and adjectives = non-terminal suffixes (subject honorific, tense/aspect, modal) plus enders (sentence enders and embedded-clause enders)

CI, or coordination index = the number of independent clause coordinations divided by the number of combined clauses (clauses minus sentences)

A coding manual was prepared before the encoding procedure began. It should be noted, however, that accuracy is a matter of degree, particularly for the use of particle. In other words, there is no clear-cut division between correct and incorrect use of particles. Case particles, for example, are often omitted in various discourse contexts, especially in colloquial speech because they are "most easily predictable from the syntactic structure, word order, and the nature of the predicate used" (Sohn, 1999, p. 327). That did make the analysis of data extremely difficult. Therefore, a rather loosened criterion was adopted for this study; that is, any use of particles was counted as correct provided it is not grammatically incorrect even if it is somewhat non-native-like or unnatural.

Results

Participant production was first analyzed in terms of complexity by counting numbers of W/CU, IS/CU, C/CU, CI, on simple, complex, and very complex versions of both map and car tasks. The descriptive statistics for the complexity measures of the map and car tasks are shown in Tables 4 & 5, respectively. Tables 4 & 5 show not only the means (M) and standard deviations (S) of the four complexity measures, but also those of C-unit, word, inflectional suffixes, and clauses.

Table 4 Map task: Descriptive statistics for speaker production on simple, complex, and very complex versions (Complexity measures)

	C-unit		Word		Inf.Suf		Clause		W/CU		IS/CU		C/CU		CI (%)	
	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD
Simple	6	1	57.7	9.29	23.3	6.51	13.7	3.79	9.63	0.42	3.84	0.44	2.26	0.29	16.7	14.4
Complex	7.67	2.08	79	11.5	28	7	19	5.57	10.5	1.33	3.67	0.14	2.47	0.35	12	11.8
Very	20.3	9.07	191	49.8	77	29.1	44	15.5	9.93	1.94	3.86	0.33	2.22	0.22	18	10.1

Table 5 Car task: Descriptive statistics for speaker production on simple, complex, and very complex versions (Complexity measures)

	C-unit		Word		Inf.Suf		Clause		W/CU		IS/CU		C/CU		CI (%)	
	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD
Simple	5	0	61.3	13.3	18.7	1.53	11.3	2.08	12.3	2.66	3.73	0.31	2.27	0.42	35.5	15
Complex	8	3	93.7	21.2	32	1.73	21	3.61	12.3	2.8	4.42	1.7	2.78	0.61	21.4	6.78
Very complex	10.3	4.04	141	52.1	48	10	28	9.64	13.7	0.38	5.01	1.47	2.75	0.22	14.2	7.2

Complexity of Oral Production

Tables 4 & 5 show that the participants produced more language, in terms of C-units, words, inflectional suffixes, and clauses, in more complex versions of both the map and car tasks than on the simple versions. However, it is the car task that shows clearer differences in complexity measures among simple, complex, and very complex versions. Table 5 shows that the participants produced more inflectional suffixes per C-unit as the task complexity increased (3.73 vs. 4.42 vs. 5.01). CI also indicates that more subordination was produced as the task complexity increased (35.5 % vs. 21.4 % vs. 14.2%). Although W/CU is the same for the simple and complex versions (12.3), the more complex version indicates a large increase (13.7). C/CU, on the other hand, shows that complex and very complex versions did not differ from each other (2.78 vs. 2.75) though they both elicited more clauses per C-unit than the simple version (2.27 vs. 2.78, or 2.75). Among these four measures, CI appears to be the most sensitive measure of syntactic complexity of L2 Korean in this case although there was quite a bit of variability among participants on this measure as shown by standard deviation (15 vs. 6.78 vs. 7.2).

On the other hand, Table 4 shows that such strong differences as in the car task did not appear in the map task. Unlike in the car task, the participants seemed to produce more complex language on the complex version as measured by words and clauses and by CI, than on the simple or very complex versions. However, no clear pattern, e.g., more complex production on the more complex version of the task as in the car task, appeared though the production became longer on the more complex version. One thing to be noted here would be that there were large differences among participants in terms of the amount of word production shown by the standard deviation, particularly on the very complex version of both tasks (49.8 and 52.1). However, it can be explained by the fact that the number of participants was too small (N=3).

Accuracy of Oral Production

Next, participant production was analyzed in terms of accuracy by counting error-free C-units and clauses, and correct use of particles and suffixes, on simple, complex, and very complex versions of both map and car tasks. The descriptive statistics for accuracy measures of the two tasks are shown in Tables 6 & 7.

Table 6 Map task: Descriptive statistics for speaker production on simple, complex, and very complex versions (Accuracy measures)

	EFCU/CU(%)		EFC/C(%)		CorrPAR/CX(%)		CorrSUF/CX(%)	
	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD
Simple	73	35.1	84.3	22.6	90.5	16.5	98.9	1.92
Complex	39.8	21.8	71.6	11	81	17.2	95.5	4.1
very complex	52.5	10.8	73.9	6.59	87.8	7.7	97.9	2.13

Table 7 Car task: Descriptive statistics for speaker production on simple, complex, and very complex versions (Accuracy measures)

	EFCU/CU(%)		EFC/C(%)		CorrPAR/CX(%)		CorrSUF/CX(%)	
	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD
Simple	73.3	11.5	87.3	8.21	100	0	98.3	2.89
Complex	77.8	14.3	92.1	5.05	95.7	3.73	99	1.7
very complex	54	11.2	79.1	3.76	92.6	2.78	97.3	2.59

Table 6 shows that participant production was most accurate on the simple version and least accurate on the complex version of the map task, whether measured by error-free C-unit and clause, or by correct use of particles and suffixes. In other words, accuracy in the map task decreases in the order of simple, very complex, and complex versions. Similarly, Table 7 shows that participant production was most accurate on the complex version of the task when measured by error-free C-unit and clause, or by correct use of suffixes, and least accurate on the very complex version of the car task whether measured by error-free C-units and clauses, or by correct use of particles and suffixes, though the differences were small. In other words, accuracy in the car task appears to decrease in the order of complex, simple, and very complex versions. This result is quite different from that for complexity measures in the car task, which showed clear differences among the versions, i.e., more complex production on more complex versions of the task.

DISCUSSION

Complexity of Oral Production in the Car Task

The results show that differing degrees of task complexity did affect the complexity of oral production, but the differences were more clearly shown in the car task than in the map task. It should be noted, however, that due to the small number of participants (N=3), statistical analysis using, e.g., a repeated measures MANOVA, can not be done, so the following discussion and interpretation can only be made within that limit. In the car task, there were clear differences in the complexity of oral production on simple, complex, and very complex versions whether measured by inflectional suffixes per C-units or coordination index. More specifically, there was a clear tendency that more complex language in terms of inflectional suffixes and the coordination index was produced on the more complex tasks. In other words, as the cognitive demand of the task increases, participants did produce more morphosyntactically complex language. Therefore, hypotheses 1.2 and 1.4 were disconfirmed. This can be seen as partial evidence for Robinson's (2001) claim that complex monologic tasks should elicit complex language.

When measured by words per C-unit, on the other hand, there were differences between the complex and the very complex versions, but not between the simple and complex versions. Similarly, when measured by clauses per C-unit, there were differences between the simple and complex versions though the difference was small (around 0.5), but not much difference between the complex (2.78) and very complex (2.75) versions. Therefore, hypotheses 1.1 and 1.3 were partially disconfirmed.

Complexity of Oral Production in the Map Task

In the map task, on the other hand, there appears to be not much differences in complexity of oral production among the simple, complex, and very complex versions because differences, if any, were very small in number, e.g., less than 0.9 in frequency, less than 7 %. Therefore, for the map task, hypotheses 1.1 through 1.4 seemed to be confirmed. It should be noted that, from the retrospective interview with participants immediately after completing the tasks, the complex and the very complex versions were found to be more or less equally difficult. This might be confirmed by the fact that participants did produce the most complex language on the complex version of the map task as measured by words and clauses per C-unit, and coordination index. However, the differences seem to be too small to argue for the disconfirmation of Hypothesis 1 on the map task.

However, it may be noted here that the three versions of the map task required the participants to follow a clear chronological sequence referring to individual actions, e.g., turn left/right, go straight, etc., whereas there was no such clear development in the more complex versions of the car task in which the picture was complicated by multiple actions and multiple actors at the same time, i.e., cars and pedestrians. Therefore, it seems that in order to for a task to be cognitively more difficult, multiple actions by multiple actors or elements should occur not in a clear chronological order.

Accuracy of Oral Production in the Map Task

Looking at the accuracy measures, we see a very different picture. In the map task first, the largest differences were between the complex, as the lowest, and simple, as the highest, versions when measured either by error-free C-unit and clause, or correct use of particle and suffix, whereas the accuracy measures on the very complex version were placed somewhere between those on the simple and complex versions. This means that hypotheses 2.1 through 2.4 were partially disconfirmed though the differences were small. However, it should be noted that the order is the opposite of that for complexity measures, i.e., more complex language on more complex versions of the task. In other words, participants produced the most accurate language on the simple version of the task and the least accurate language on the complex version though the differences were small (3-13 %) except when measured by error-free C-unit (33%). This appears to be a counter-evidence, in terms of accuracy, for Robinson's (2001) claim that complex monologic tasks elicits more accurate production, relative to simpler tasks. However, it will still depend on the nature of the task complexity. It can also be noted here as described before in the Data Analysis section that the correct use of particles or suffixes did not seem to be a sensitive measure of accuracy of oral production of L2 Korean because there were very few differences measured by the two on the simple, complex, and very complex versions.

Accuracy of Oral Production in the Car Task

The car task, on the other hand, shows a quite different picture. The largest differences were between the very complex, as the lowest, and complex, as the highest, when measured either by error-free C-units and clauses, or correct use of suffixes. This means that participants produced the most accurate language on the complex version of the car task except when measured by the correct use of particles, and the least accurate language on the very complex version. Therefore, hypotheses 2.5 through 2.8 were partially disconfirmed, but again, in a different way, i.e., the most accurate on the complex version, and the least accurate on the very complex version. Here again, the correct use of particles and suffixes did not seem to serve as a sensitive measure of accuracy of oral production of KFL.

One thing to be mentioned here is that there could be constraints posed by the proficiency level of participants and the task complexity. The general criteria for participants were that a possible candidate should be proficient enough to complete the task even under lots of pressure imposed by task complexity, but at the same time, should not be proficient enough to finish the task without much difficulty. In other words, if anyone cannot finish the task due to lack of proficiency, or can complete the tasks without much difficulty, he or she cannot be a participant for the study. However, P1, the only heritage speaker among the three, turned out to be the latter case. He was so proficient that he could finish the task with relative ease. His verbal protocol right after completing the tasks proved that he had been able to handle the demands of the tasks without much difficulty. Results show that he, unlike the other two participants, produced the most complex language on the simple version of both tasks.

As a brief summary, in the map task, the complexity measures did not show any significant differences on the simple, complex, and very complex versions in a systematic way whereas the four accuracy measures showed differences between the simple and complex versions in that the most accurate language was produced on the simple version of the task, and the least accurate on the complex version. In the car task, the complexity measures showed differences on the simple, complex, and very complex versions in a systematic way, i.e., more complex language on more complex versions of the task. Among these four measures, inflectional suffix and coordination index showed differences in the most systematic way, i.e., most complex language on the most complex version and least complex language on the least complex version. Coordination index, however, appears to be the most sensitive measure for complexity of oral production of L2 Korean. Accuracy measures for the car task also showed differences between the complex and very complex versions, but in a different way, i.e., the most accurate language on the complex version of the task, and the least accurate on the very complex version.

CONCLUSIONS

Limitations

Most of all, it should be mentioned that this is a small-scale pilot study, which included only three participants, thus enabling no statistical analysis. Therefore, discussion and/or conclusion based on this study could be limited. Results also cannot be generalized beyond this study.

Implications

This study shows that differing degrees of task complexity did affect accuracy and complexity of oral production, but in different ways, i.e., more complex language produced on a more complex task and more accurate language on a simpler task. Thus, it partially confirms Robinson's (2001) claims for the effects of complex task on syntactic complexity of learner production but fails for those on accuracy of learner production.

Although the three versions of the map task were examined for their face validity, it turned out that the complex version was seen as the most complex by two of the three participants. In other words, the learner's actual perception of the cognitive demands of a task could be different from what the task designer might have expected. This suggests that relying on one dimension, e.g., number of elements as in this case, might not be sufficient for sequencing decisions. Accordingly, another dimensions like multiple actions by multiple elements occurred at the same time may have to be incorporated to increase the cognitive demands of a given task. It should be useful information for researchers or syllabus designers.

Another implication for future research is that language-specific measures can be employed for the analysis of learner output depending on the nature of a given language. In this study, the number of inflectional suffixes proved as an effective measure for syntactic complexity in L2 Korean.

Suggestions for Further Research

In addition to the car task in this study, which proved to be promising, more task types should be sought for a future study of this kind. Accordingly, it should be of interest to know how the effects of a certain dimension(s) on learner output would be different across different task types.

The combining effects of different dimensions also need to be investigated because the mechanism of their interaction with each other has not been much explored yet (see, however, Robinson, 2001, in which he distinguishes resource-directing from resource-depleting dimensions of task complexity and assigns them different roles).

More participants will of course be needed to enable a statistical analysis. As mentioned above, language-specific measures for accuracy and/or syntactic complexity can also be tested for further research. Finally, the reliability of the coding for the accuracy and complexity measures need to be checked by multiple raters.

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Recognition of English loanwords by learners of Korean

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1. Introduction

English speaking learners of European languages can easily learn the vocabulary of the target languages using cognate words and loanwords between mother tongues and target languages (Webber 1978; Banta 1981; Howlett 1979; de Groot & Keizer 2000). Like other languages, the Korean language has adopted many words from English and the number of the loanwords has greatly increased as a result of accelerated global communication in the Internet era. *외래어 표기 용례* contains 42,000 entries, *금성판 국어대사전* contains 20,000 entries and the Korean Ministry of Education identified about 3,000 commonly used loanwords in its publication entitled '*편수자료 II-1 외래어 표기 용례(일반 외래어)*' in 1994. Although these entries include the loanwords from languages other than English, many of them can be considered as loanwords from English since they have been adopted through English.

English loanwords in Korean have the potential of helping English-speaking learners to quickly expand the size of their Korean vocabulary. That is, the learners' native language can give them a built-in lexicon of many of the high frequency words in Korean, such as 버스, 아이스크림, 커피, 뉴스, 세미나, 리포트 and 스커트.

However, learners of the Korean language do not seem to take advantage of these loanwords since Hangul, the Korean writing system, is completely different from the English alphabet. That is, English loanwords in Korean do not appear in the written form as loanwords to English-speaking learners. As a result, these learners seem to have difficulties in activating their top-down strategies in dealing with the loanwords.

Furthermore, the recent trend of using English words indiscriminately in the media can add difficulty to the learning of Korean as shown in the examples below:

[TV broadcasting, 이은경 1998]
뭔가 그로테스크하고 오서독스하고 마요네즈소스하고 ...
잘 서포트해서 좋은 결과 냅시다.

[Magazine, 고성환 1998]
같이 입으면 캐주얼하고 활동적인 이미지를 만드는 체크 무늬 셔츠 & 니트 - 아가일 체크, 타탄 체크, 깅엄 체크 - 등 체크 무늬는 언제나 사랑받는 아이템이다. 평범한 킷을 매니시한 느낌으로, 솔리드 니트를 발랄한 감각으로 만들어내는 체크 무늬.

When learners encounter English words used in Korean and they do not know that these are borrowed from English, the learners may experience more difficulty since these words are not listed in Korean dictionaries.

The percentage of loanwords and English words used in the names of shops, products, and in the media, such as television, newspapers and magazines, is alarmingly high (이은경 1998; 고성환 1998; 이선영 1998). According to 이은경 (1998), who studied the percentage of loanwords and English words in television program titles in 1997, 63.2 % included loanwords and/or English words (22.7 % were made of loandwords and/or English words only). Loanwords and/or English words were frequently used in actual television programs as well (이은경 1998).

Table 1: Frequency of loanwords and/or English words used in television programs

Type of programs	Length studied	Approx. frequency of loanwords and/or English words
News	480 mins	1,000 times
Sports	370 mins	1,500 times
Entertainment	2,500 min	1,500 times
Education	300 mins	370 times

Loanwords are also used quite heavily in the names of shops and products. For example, 58.9% of shop names included loanwords and/or English words in 1997 (이선영 1998).

The loanwords (and English words) not only can help learners to expand the size of their Korean vocabulary quickly but also can cause difficulty. In this respect, the teaching of loanwords (and English words) in Korean is very important, but the problem that is associated with it, as described above, has not to date received due attention.

The purpose of this paper is to examine ways of helping English-speaking learners to activate the top-down processing strategies to tackle loanwords. To this end, two experiments have been conducted. It has to be mentioned that this is a pilot study.

2. Method

2.1 Participants

Experiment 1: Thirteen participants took part: seven first-year students, four second-year students and two third-year students. The experiment was conducted in the 11th week of the first semester in 2001. By the time of the experiment, the first-year students did not have much difficulty in decoding Hangul.

Experiment 2: Six participants took part: four second-year students and two third-year students. The experiment was conducted in the 12th week of the first semester in 2001.

2.2 Materials & Procedure

Experiment 1: The participants were given a vocabulary test which had twenty food-related words: ten Korean words and ten loanwords. All the words were mixed at random, and the participants were informed that all the words are related to food.

When the participants finished the test, their answers were checked immediately to see if they left any loanwords unanswered. All the unanswered loanwords were marked, and the test sheets were returned to participants. They were told that the marked items were loanwords and to try to figure out their meanings.

It has to be mentioned that there is a possibility that the participants had already known some of the loanwords before the test, but this factor is not important in our experiment. Because the experiment was to see whether or not their performance would improve when they were informed that some words were borrowed from English.

Experiment 2: The participants were given a translation test which consisted of ten short sentences, of which five sentences had a loanword in them. In order to exclude the possible influence by different structural complexities, the loanword sentences were paired with non-loanword sentences of similar structure as shown below.

저 사랑 아주 재미없어요.
저 사람은 아주 스마트해요.

The test procedure was the same as in the experiment 1. That is, when students left the loanwords sentences untranslated, they were told that those were loanwords and to try them again.

2.3 Results

Experiment 1: Most participants tended to do better when they were informed that certain words were loanwords as shown in the table 1 below.

Test	When not informed	When informed
Correct answers	7.23	8.3

Experiment 2: Three students got all the loanwords right at the first trial and one student could not figure out all of them. This student improved at the second trial but not the other two students who got three of them right at the first trial.

Students	When not informed	When informed	Total
1	5	0	5
2	5	0	5
3	0	+2	2
4	3	0	3
5	5	0	5
6	3	0	3

2.4 Discussion

The results of Experiment 1 and 2 show that students can benefit in dealing with loanwords if these words are marked in a way that shows they are loanwords. However, this extra information is not enough to tackle all the loanwords. Some loanwords seem to be more difficult than others as suggested by Kim (2000). In our experiments, most participants had difficulty with 버터 (experiment 1) and 점프했어요 (experiment 2).

Informal interviews after the experiment revealed that most students used a 'sounding-out' strategy when faced with a word which sounded like English. However, further research is necessary to investigate under which circumstances this strategy is utilized.

3. Conclusion

Although the results of this study can not be conclusive due to the small number of participants and test items, the study does show that learners can recognize loanwords better when they are provided with the information that the words are borrowed from English. Therefore, Korean learning materials could be designed in a way that learners can distinguish loanwords from native words and activate the top-down processing including the sounding-out strategy. One way of providing this information is to use a different font for loanwords.

However, this is not enough for learners to tackle some difficult loanwords. In order to solve this problem, we have to consider teaching loanwords at the early stage of learning which may also help them to expand the size of their vocabulary. However, it is very important that learners learn the rules or general patterns that apply when English is transliterated into Korean or when English is pronounced by Koreans following the Korean sound system. In other words, the learners have to learn to recognize loanwords on their own. Otherwise, they may not be able to understand loanwords, which are used by many Koreans but are not listed in Korean dictionaries. However, one needs to be careful not to encourage students to become dependent on using loanwords when equivalent Korean words are readily available. This choice of the words used could be important.

As mentioned earlier, this study is a pilot study which requires further research. The future research may explore issues such as:

- Easy vs. difficult loanwords.
- Retention rate of easy vs. difficult loanwords.
- Retention rate of loanwords vs. native words.

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Part IV

Culture and Literature

The Number Concept of Korean People

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According to people's customs and habits, they favor certain numbers and try to avoid others in ceremonies and everyday life. For Koreans, the most special number is "3". From the old times, 3 has been considered as an auspicious or lucky number and even the holiest of numbers. In this paper, I would like to examine why Koreans have regarded 3 as the best number through the yin and yang concept of Korea's founding Tangun myth.

There are many examples to show how much Koreans favor 3 or trinity though not in the sense of the Christian doctrine (see below). A good example can be seen in the pre-iron age bowl, 'the three-footed pot' shown on the last page. Originally, the three-footed pot was the treasure bowl which symbolized the nation. However, this three-footed treasure bowl changed its shape a little and became a bowl for burning incense in the Buddhist temple. A four-footed bowl can not stand on the uneven floor, but a three-footed bowl can on any uneven floor. That is the majesty of the number 3.

The Korean writing system Hangul, one of the most scientific writing systems in the world, was created by the concept of Trinity: The harmony among Heaven(.), Earth(—), and Human(1).

Koreans' predilection for the number 3 is also shown in the rhythms of the folk song, three lines of the unique Korean poetry "Sijo", 3 bows for the ancestor worship, the ginseng finder's ritual of 3 sounds, 3-god temples, legends of the Cheju Island, native rituals of changing the sex of the fetus, many customs of fishing villages, shamanistic rituals and funeral ceremonies of villagers.

In addition to the many examples of Korean culture that underly the number 3, as described above, The doubling of 3 can also be found in many examples. The number (33) of the students selected by the Civil Examination in the Koryo era, the number of the Boy Scout in the Shilla era, the number of the official merchants toward the end of the Yi dynasty, the number of the representatives of the March 1st Movement in 1919 against the Japanese are such, intriguing examples.

The best example of this magic number 3 is seen in the Korean flag. The Korean flag, the symbol of the Republic of Korea, is called "T'aegukki". The name was derived from the *t'aeguk* circle in the center. The *t'aeguk* circle stands for the eternal principle that everything in the universe is created and develops through the interaction between yin and yang; thus it symbolizes creation and development. When we draw the flag, the circle is placed exactly in the center of the flag, and its diameter is one half of the width of the flag. The "s" line dividing the circle begins at the point where a diagonal line crossing the flag from the top left to the bottom right first meets the circumference of the circle, and ends at the point precisely opposite to it. Each curve of the 's" character should form half of the circumference of a smaller circle, the diameter of which is exactly half that of the big circle.

The Korean concept of number 1 represents the quantity of 1, and at the same time it is a whole. It represents the Heaven. In the view of the yin and yang, 1 is the number not yet mixed or combined with any other numbers. It is the first pure yang number which is a masculine number. Also it is the first odd number, which means that everything comes out of 1.

2 is the first number which is not 1, and it is the first yin even number. It is the pure number which is not combined or mixed with any other numbers. Also, 2 is the number that signifies a couple like yin and yang, Heaven and Earth, male and female; it also means contrast and concord.

3 is the first number that is created and changed from the pure yang of 1 and the pure yin of 2. That is, it is the number which is finally perfected with the harmony of the yin and yang and which becomes complete, symbolizing perfection, tranquility, harmony, and change. Its beauty lies in the adding together of the 1 and the 2 to equal 3 without dividing the characters of 2 and without destroying the wholeness of 1.

The native Korean word for 1 ("han") represents *one, large, many, much, whole, middle of, high, same, and wide.* The origin of the word 'hana' is 'sun' and 'light'. The number 2 symbolizes *two, harmony, divide, go together, contrast, conflict,* and *subordinates.* The origin of the word 'dul' is 'moon' or 'couple' and represents the meaning 'mother' or 'the earth'. The number 3 symbolizes *three, live, life, perfection, creation, harmony,* and *triangularity.* The origin of the word 'set' is 'between', 'son', and 'to live'.

The reasons for the Koreans' love for the number 3 can vary depending on people's interpretations. Who is right and what might be plausible reasons? The possible reasons that might be considered are: 1) general human characteristics, 2) the influence of Confucianism or Taoism, 3) the influence of Buddhism, 4) the nature of the horse-riding people, and 5) the influence of shamanism. I will leave this fascinating topic for future research, however. What follows is the Korean version of my presentation.

한국인의 3에 대한 수개념에 대하여

I. 먼저

언어의 발생이 모방(Bow-wow theory)이나·감정의 본능에 의한 표현(Pooh-pooh theory)이었든지, 노동(Yo-he-ho theory)이나 접촉의 본능(Contact theory)에 의한 것이었던지 언어에는 그 언어를 사용하고 구사하는 공동체의 문화가 스며 있다.1) 또한 언어마다 이러한 자체 문화를 배경으로 문법적 체계와 함께 문화적인 체계를 포함하고 있다. 이 때, 언어의 문법적 체계는 일목요연하게 정리하고 정의를 내려 전달이 되지만, 언어에 스며있는 문화는 생활 속에서 면면히 이어갈 뿐만 아니라, 체계를 세워 간단 명료하게 전달할 수 있는 성질의 것이 아니다. 문화적 요소는 같은 언어를 쓰는 종족 사이에서 세대에 의해 유형 무형의 모든 형태로 전달되어지고 배운 행위이기 때문이다. 문화는 의미부여의 연속이며 인간은 이러한 의미부여의 상징 속에서 살아간다. 언어에 스며있는 상징의 세계를 이해하지 못하면, 언어 습득을 완전하다고 할 수 없다.

이에 본 글에서는, 한국인의 수에 대한 상징세계 이해함으로써 한국어를 배우는 사람들이 한국을 더 가까이 접근할 수 있는 작업의 일원으로 삼고자 한다. 특히 한국어는 그 저변 사상에 한국 고유 종교와 함께 오랜 무속과 고유사상의 맥락을 이어오고 있으며 불교, 유교, 도교 등의 전래된 종교들과 함께 한국인의 생활 속에 면면이 이어져오고 있음을 증명하는 것이라 본다. 이는 음양5행설이 삼신사상에서 유래했다는 주장이나 아니면 음양5행설이 삼신사상의 뿌리라고 하는 이론을 세우는 것과는 아무 연관이 없음을 밝혀두고자 한다. 그러므로 본 글은 논고라기 보다는 하나의 정리장에 지나지 않는다.

II. 수의 상징과 한국의 단군신화

한민족은 3을 즐기고 신성시한다. 한민족은 3박자를 즐기는 민족으로 3음절의 가사와 음악을 가지고 있다2). 한국인의 글자를 만든 세종은 단군신화의 홍익인간의 이념을 받들어 삼재의 천지인에 의거하여 한글의 모음을 만들어내었다. 3음보의 율격미를 갖춘 시조는 초중종 3장으로 이루어져 있으며 한국인은 무엇이든 삼 세 번 하기를 좋아하고, 분향할 때 향을 세 번 집어 불에 태운다. 인삼을 캘 때에도 '심봤다'를 세 번 외치고, 절에 가도 삼신당이 있다. 또한 한민족은 이러한 3을 겹하여 쓰기를 즐긴다. 고려

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1) Clark, Eschholz, & Rosa, Language. St. Martin's. 1977, pp.3-18

2) Kil, Ok Yun, 3pakja, Video program, KBS, 1994

시대 과거시험에서 문과 정원으로 뽑은 수가 33인이었으며, 화랑도의 동자군 선발도 33인을 넘지 않았다고 한다. 한말에 보부상 발기인의 수도 33인이었으며, 1919년 민족의 독립운동일인 3.1절의 발기인도 33인이었다. 33은 전체성인 정의 완성하는 것으로 간주되며 여러 사람이 짝을 지어 가는 형상을 2명이나 4명이. 가더라도 3355 짝을 지어 간다고 한다. 응원을 할 때는 3.3.7 박수를 친다. 한민족은 또한 음수보다는 양수를 즐기고 신성시한다. 임부가 콩을 한 줌 쥐어 음수면 딸 양수면 아들이라 한다. 결혼을 할 때에는 신부 2배에 신랑 1배를 하며, 산 사람에게 절을 할 때는 한 번 하고 죽은 사람에게 2배 4배를 한다. 그러면서 또한 3거리에서 헤어지고, 3거리에서 다시 만나고, 3거리에서 자기의 길로 간다. 3과 양수를 선호하는 한민족의 의식에는 무엇이 도사리고 있을까?

수는 단순한 양만을 표현하는 것이 아니라 자체의 고유한 관념을 상징한다. 말하자면 현실적인 아라비아 수는 그 속에 의미를 가리고 있는 겉옷과 같다. 모든 수는 어떤 크기도 지시하지 않는 신비한 한 점으로 인식되는 1이라는 수에서 나온다. 어떤 수가 이 1이라는 통일성의 세계에서 멀어지면 멀어질수록 그 수는 물질, 뒤얽힌 과정, 이른바 '세계'속에 포함된다. 그리스 체계 속에 나오는 최초의 열 개의 수, 혹은 전통적으로 동양에 사용되는 열 두 개의 수는 모두가 정신을 의미한다. 곧 이 수들은 실체이면서 원형으로서의 상징적 의미를 거느린다. 나머지 수들은 이 기본적인 수들을 결합한 산물에 지나지 않는다. 그리스인들은 특히 수의 상징에 집착했다고 한다. 피타고라스는 모든 사물들이 수에 의해 전개된다고 생각했으며 수는 본질적인 조화의 세계라고 간주했으며 조화는 우주와 인간의 토대라고 생각하면서 조화의 운동은 정상적인 영혼의 운동과 비슷하다고 주장했다. 수의 철학은 히브류인들, 초기 기독교의 신비 철학자들인 영지주의자들, 유대교 신비 철학자들에 의해 발전되었으며 연금술사들에게 널리 영향을 주었다. 이와 똑 같이 기본적이고 보편적인 관념들은 동양 사상 노자의 경우에도 발견된다.[3]

동양인의 수 개념은 하늘의 10간과 땅의 12지[4]로 나타나고 있으며, 이는 우주만물을 음과 양의 성질로 이해하는 음양설과 다섯 가지 요소로 분석 정리하여 이해하는 5행설에 그 근거를 둔다. 12지와 10간이 다시 만나는 60년의 생일을 축하하며, 정치나 관습이 이에 의거하여 정해져 왔다는 것은 유불선 삼교를 살펴보면 쉽게 알 수 있는 일이다. 유교의 주역은 역대 동양 왕조의 교과서역할을 하였으며 불교와 선교에서도 역시 이를 근저로 한 예들이 허다하다. 그러므로 동양인의 수개념을 이해하기 위해서

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3) Encyclopedia Britannica, VII, 1980439-440

4) 12지 : 子丑寅卯辰巳午未申酉戌亥 10간: 甲乙丙丁戊己庚申壬癸

는 천체의 혹성을 근거로 하여 水火木金土의 5행성으로 사물과 인간사를 해설하는 주역의 학문을 이해하여야만 한다. 그러나 본고에서는 한국인의 3이라는 수에 관한 상징성을 살피고자 하므로 10간과 12지와 한국어의 관계에 대하여는 차후에 정리하기로 한다.

먼저 0부터 3까지의 수를 간단히 살펴보자. 본 글에서는 어차피 한글이 발명되기까지 한민족의 문자언어였던 한자를 살핌에 한 치의 주저가 없음을 먼저 일러 둔다. 한문이나 한자 교육에 관한 논란은 본 글의 목적이 아니므로 그 가치나 의의에 대하여는 생략한다. 수는 0으로 시작하여 무한대까지 사실 그 끝은 없다. 0은 비존재, 신비한 통일성의 세계를 상징한다. 신비하다는 것은 0이 통일성과 반통일성의 세계를 신비롭게 연결하며 통일성의 세계와 그것이 반영하는 세계를 동시에 연결하기 때문이다. 0은 한자어 영(零)으로 표시된다. 零은 비 雨에 소리 令을 합쳐 만든 글자로 빗물이 지붕에 떨어질 때 소리를 내며 떨어져서 없어졌다는 뜻으로 쓰이며 또한 적다는 뜻의 말이다. 또한 이와 비슷하게 '없다'는 개념의 글자들에는 무(無), 허(虛), 공(空)이 있다. 그러나 無는 有의 반대 개념으로 쓰이며 이는 나무 가지를 불에 태웠으므로 없어졌다는 것이 되어 사실상으로는 '있었던 것이 연소되어 없어졌다'는 것으로 0과는 거리가 있다 하겠다. 虛는 '호랑이를 잡으려고(범의 문채 虍) 파 놓은 함정(언덕 丘)에 아무 것도 걸려든 것이 없다'는 뜻에서 '비다' '헛되다'의 뜻을 갖고 있으므로 숫자상의 의미와는 거리가 있다 하겠다. 이에 空 또한 구멍 穴에 만들 工을 덧붙인 글자로 '땅을 파 낸 굴속이 비어 있다'는 뜻이므로 '비었다'는 뜻이다. 여하튼 영점(零點)은 0를 가르친다.

순한국어에서 1을 나타내는 '한'은 하나라는 뜻과 함께 '많다,' '크다'는 의미를 지니고 있다. 이는 해를 지칭하기도 하며, 하늘, 하느님, 한족 등의 어휘와 함께 하늘을 지칭한다. 한자어 一은 손가락 하나, 또는 선 하나를 옆으로 그어 수효의 하나를 가리킨다. 1은 하나의 수량을 말하지만 동시에 사물의 전체와 태극을 나타내고 있는 수이다. 음양의 이치에서 보면 1은 아무 수와도 섞이지 않은 순수한 양의 수이다. 또한 최초의 수이므로 1에서부터 모든 사물이 생겨난다는 뜻이 있다.

순한국어에서 2를 나타내는 '둘'은 달이라는 말에서 기인하였으며 짝, 조화라는 뜻을 동반한다. 동양에서의 수 2는 하나가 아닌 최초의 단위이자 최초의 음수이며 순음의 수이다. 또한 음과 양, 하늘과 땅, 남과여 등과 같이 둘이 짝하여 하나가 된다는 대립과 화합의 의미를 담고 있다. 그러므로 2는 또한 자신이 아닌 어떤 대립의 존재, 갈등의 뜻을 수반하며 동시에 조화와 융화를 나타내기도 한다. 한자어 二는 손가락 두 개, 또는 두 선을 그어 둘, 거듭 등을 나타낸 글자이며 一자 아래 다시 一을 받쳐 수효의 둘을 뜻한다.[5]

어쨌든 1은 첫 양의 수로서 東쪽과 정신을 理와 唯心을 나타내며 하

늘과 생명,·그리고 형이상학을 상징한다. 이와는 상대적으로 첫 2는 음의 수로서 西쪽과 육체를 氣와 唯物을 상징하며 땅과 죽음, 그리고 형이하학을 상징한다. 이 원리는 모든 양수와 모든 음수에 같이 해당된다.[6]

3은 양수의 시작인 순양 1과 순음 2가 최초로 결합하여 생겨난 변화수이다. 즉 음양의 조화가 비로소 완벽하게 이루어진 수가 3이다. 한자어 三은 손가락 셋을 펼친 모양이며 또한 한 일을 세 번 그어 3을 나타낸다.[7] 따라서 3은 1과 2인 음양의 대립에 하나를 더 보탬으로써 완성, 안정, 조화, 변화를 상징한다. 짝수인 2처럼 둘로 갈라지지도 않고 원수인 1의 신성함을 파괴하지 않은 채 변화하여 완성이라는 의미를 나타내게 된 것이다. 따라서 3이라는 숫자는 세 개로 나누어져 있지만 전체로서는 완성된 하나라는 강력한 상징을 띠고 있다. 이는 주역의 본질이 '만물이 변화한다'는 변화 그 자체에 근거를 둔 것을 생각해보면 3이라는 수의 상징성을 쉽게 이해할 수 있다.

현대의 상징 논리학이나 집합 이론은 양이라는 관념을 질의 토대로까지 발전시킨다. 수가 암시하는 통일성과 다중성이라는 기본의 상징 외에 홀수와 짝수의 정적이고 수동적인 원리를 표현한다. 이는 하나가 둘을 낳고 둘이 셋을 창조한다는 자신과 대립되는 실체와 마주치려는 경향이 있다는 가설에 토대를 둔다. 이는 아버지와 어머니가 있어 아버지와 닮은 자식을 낳는다는 이론이 성립된다. 두개의 요소가 있다면 셋째 요소는 이 둘의 결합으로 나타나며 따라서 3이 된다 이 3은 또한 셋을 연결하는 방식으로 4라는 수를 창조한다. 즉 혼자였을 때에는 혼자이므로 대립이나 갈등이 필요가 없었지만 둘이 되면 이러한 갈등과 반항, 원초적 겹침이 된다. 이것은 쉽게 예를 들자면, 결혼을 한 부부를 생각해 볼 수 있다. 이러한 원리는 역사를 보는 관점이나 사물을 사유하는 원리로서 정(正, 創者, These), 반(反, 對者, Antithese), 합(合, 統一, synthese)의 이론으로 사유의 완성, 이원대립의 해결이라는 것으로 이끌어 간 칸트나 헤겔의 사고와도 무관한 것이 아님을 엿볼 수 있다. 논리의 비논리, 비논리의 논리가 여기에서 연유하는 것이라고도 볼 수 있다.

이러한 기본적인 수 개념과 상징성을 우리는 한국의 첫 건국신화인 단군신화에서 만나게 된다. 알다시피 단군신화에는 많은 숫자들이 포함되어 있다. 단군신화에 표현되고 있는 수 개념을 살펴보면, 현재 우리가 상징적으로 사용하고 있는 수의 기본개념이 이미 그 시대에 이루어졌음을 미루어 짐작할 수 있게 된다. 기원 전 2333년에 나라를 세우고 1908년의 나이를 먹고 산신이 된 단군으로부터, 우리는 4천년이 넘은 세월을 통해

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5) 강충희 편저, 秘法漢字, 학일출판사, 1993. p.20

6) 박주헌, 음양오행, 동학사, 1997, 110-142

7) 강충희 편저, 비법한자, 학일출판사, 1993, p.15

면면히 이어져 온 민속적 종교적 기본 이치를 포함하고 있는 한국인의 문화를 만나게 된다.

> 하늘의 왕 환인은 삼위태백(三危太伯)을 내려다보고 서자 환웅이 인간 세상에 내려가 널리 인간을 이롭게 할 것을 원하는 바 그 청을 들어 주며 천부인(天符印) 세 개와 무리 삼천을 주어 태백산 꼭대기의 신단수 아래에 신시(神市)를 이루게 하였다. 환웅은 풍백 우사 운사를 거느리고 인간의 삼백육십여 가지 일을 맡아 다스렸다. 어느 날 곰과 범이 찾아와 환웅에게 인간이 되게 해 달라고 간청하자 쑥 한 줌과 마늘 스무 개를 주며 그것을 먹고 백일 동안 굴 속에서 햇볕을 보지 않으면 사람이 될 것이라 하여 이리하여 곰은 삼칠일 만에 여자의 몸이 되었으나 범은 사람이 되지 못하였다. 한편 사람이 된 웅녀는 잉태하기를 빌었는데 환웅이 잠깐 사람으로 변하여 웅녀와 혼인을 하여 그 사이에 태어난 아들이 단군이다.[8]

3위태백, 천부인 3개, 무리 3천, 인간의 360여가지 일, 쑥 1[한]줌, 마늘 20개, 100일, 3-7일 등의 수 들이 신화에 포함되어 있다. 그 중 단군신화에 가장 먼저 등장하는 수는 3위태백의 3이라는 숫자다. 3은 이렇게 한국의 첫 신화에 처음으로 등장하는 것은 한민족이 옛부터 3을 신성수로서 취급했다는 것을 알 수 있다. 그리고 이는 유달리 3을 좋아한 우리 민족의 성정은 단군신화에서부터 시작된 것이라고 거꾸로 생각해 볼 수 있다. 즉 환인이 인간세상인 3위 태백을 내려다보았고, 풍백(風伯), 우사(雨師), 운사(雲師) 세 주술사를 통솔하는 상징물[9]천부인 3[세][10] 개를 가지고 다스리게 한 것이나, 환웅이 무리 3천명을 거느리고 태백산에 내려와 360여 일을 맡은 일, 곰이 굴속에서 3x7일 만에 사람으로 변화한 것 등으로 볼 때 3이 관계되지 않은 숫자가 없다. 또한, 억지 같으나 단군이 나라를 다스린 기간인 1500년이나 단군이 산신이 되어 인간세상을 떠난 수명의 1908세도 3으로 겹곱이 가능하다. 여기서 우리는 3이라는 수가 신성시되어 있는 것을 쉽게 알아볼 수 있으며 이에 환인, 환웅, 단군을 들어 천지인의 삼신이라고 하는 삼신사상이 한민족에게는 자연스러운 것임을 알 수 있다. 더구나 동물이 인간으로 변형할 수 있는 기간이 이러한 신성수의 3을 일곱번

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8) 일연, 김영석 옮김, 삼국유사, 학원사, 1994, p. 12-13

9) 한국문화 상징사전, 한국문화 상징사전 편찬위원회, 韓國文化 상징사전, 두산동아, 1996, p.422

10) 천부인 3개에 대하여서는 의견이 분분하다. 혹자는 천자임을 인정하는 도장 세 개 혹은 천자가 기록한 책자 세 권, 혹은 무속 제사장의 권한을 상징하는 거울, 방울, 부채로 해석하기도 한다.

거듭한 것에 상징적인 의미가 있음을 볼 수 있다. 즉 100일 동안 햇빛을 보지 않고 쑥과 마늘을 먹어야만 했는데 왜 3x7일만에 인간이 되었을까 하는 의문에 우리는 다시 1과 2의 개념을 생각해 보지 않을 수 없다. 즉 3과 4는 1과 2를 기본 요소로 하는 최초의 집합이라고 볼 때, 이들의 합계 곧 3과 4가 합해서 7이 된다. 그리고 이들의 중첩에 의해 12가 나온다. 3은 7과 관련되며 이는 두 수가 모두 홀수이기 때문이다. 그런가 하면, 4는 12와 관련되는데 이는 두 수가 모두 짝수이기 때문이다. 여기서 볼 때 단군신화에 나타나는 3x7일의 의미를 찾을 수 있는 근거가 된다. 이는 또한 한국인의 국기인 태극기의 원리가 이러한 한국인의 기본개념에서 유래했음을 알 수 있다. 한국기 속의 태극은 하나의 원 속에 두 개의 작은 원을 포함하여 세 개의 원으로 이루어진 우주를 도식화한 상징이다. 그러므로 태극은 하나의 원으로 보이지만 하늘을 상징하는 원 속에는 다른 두 개의 원이 더 들어 있어 태극을 이루는데 이는 바로 땅과 인간을 상징하는 다른 두 요소가 우주의 완성과 조화라는 상징 속에 들어 있는 것이다.

III. 삼신사상과 음양이론

이렇게 한민족의 단군신화에 나타난 사상을 삼신사상이라고 한다. 환인, 환웅, 단군을 일컫는 말이다. 이 삼신사상에는 앞에서 살펴본 대로 1과 2, 그리고 3에 얽힌 상징적 세계를 나타내고 있으며 음양오행설에 비추어 살펴 볼 수가 있다. 삼신사상과 음양오행설의 발생에 관해서는 주로 두 가지 이론을 갖고 있다. 음양이론이 먼저 중국에서 주역이나 노장사상 그리고 유교에서 보여주는 체계로 확립되었는데 이것이 불교와 선교 사상으로 발전하여 한국으로 들어와 삼신사상의 단군신화로 발전되었다고 보는 견해와 함께, 오히려 한국땅에서 삼신사상을 토대로 음양이론이 섰는데 이것이 중국으로 건너가 음양5행설로 발전되었다고 하는 이론이 그것이다.

어쨌든 삼신사상에는 음양이론이 확연히 들어 있음을 볼 수 있다. 단군신화에 나타난 삼신사상을 볼 수 있는 것은 도덕경과 주역이 있다. 주역은 자연을 구성하고 있는 하늘과 땅을 대표하는 기운이 양과 음으로 변화하는 과정을 설명하고 있는데 이는 유교인의 필독서였다. 주역에 의하면, 음양사상을 구성하는 요소는 음의 기본이 되는 땅과 양의 기본이 되는 하늘 두 가지로 압축된다. 이런 이원적인 해석은 삼신사상과 일치한다. 삼신사상에서는 자연을 천일 지일 태일(太一) 세 가지로 구분한다. 천일은 하늘의 커다란 기운을 지일은 땅의 커다란 기운을 태일은 생명력의 근원인 영적인 힘을 말한다. 영혼과 하늘의 기운과 땅의 기운이 결합하여 생명력이 이루어진다고 보는 것이다. 음양 이론에서는 생명력이 하늘과 땅 두 기운이 결합한 것으로 본다. 이와 같이 천지태의 삼신적인 구분에서 천지를 음양이론에 따라 양분하는 방법이 발전했다. 이에 한국의 단군종교에서 음

양설의 근원은 삼신 사상에 있다고 보는 것이다. 즉, 하늘과 땅의 기운을 받아 태어난 인간은 그 존재 자체가 하나의 소우주로 천지의 형상을 이루고 있다. 머리는 둥글어 하늘을 닮았고 사계절의 기운을 받아 팔과 다리가 네 개가 되었으며 눈과 귀는 해와 달을 상징한다. 오행의 기운은 사람 안에 오장을 만들고 하루가 12시간으로 이루어지는 것처럼 12경맥을 가진다. 이렇듯 사람의 신체 구조는 모두 천지의 운행에 따른 것이다. 또한 이는 한의학에서 사람은 정기신(精氣神) 3 요소로 구성된 것으로 보고 물질적이고 육체적인 것에 바탕을 둔 정과 육체 내부에서 순환되는 기운의 기와 사람의 마음 및 정신 능력을 말하는 신으로 구성되어 있다고 본다. 이렇게 삼신사상에서는 인간을 구성하는 정기신을 바로 자연을 구성하는 천일 지일 태일의 압축물로 보고 사람의 생명체는 하늘 기운(영적인 작용)과 땅기운(육체적인 구조) 그리고 신기운(하늘과 땅 사이를 연결하는 기운)으로 구분된 세 가지 기운의 결합으로 이루어졌다고 본다.[11]

이와 함께, 노자의 도덕경 속에서도 이러한 사상이 나타나 있음을 볼 수 있다. "도가 하나를 낳고, 하나가 둘을 낳고, 둘이 셋을 낳고, 셋이 만물을 낳습니다: 道生一一生二二生三三生萬物" (도덕경 제 42장)[12] 여기서 이를 풀이한 오강남 교수의 견해 또한 우주 창생론의 삼신사상과 맥락을 같이 하고 있다. 즉 '주객 미분의 무극 상태, 미발(未發)의 상태에서 태극 상태가 나오고 이런 원초적인 상태에서 양극으로의 분화 현상이 생겨났는데 이 양극의 조화로운 상관 관계에서 만물이 생겨나게 되었으니 이런 뜻에서 만물은 음을 등에 지고 양을 가슴에 안았다... 양기의 대표적인 하늘과 음기의 대표적인 땅이 서로 기를 합해 조화를 이루므로 산천 초목과 세상 만물이 생겨나는데..." 하여 여기서도 3의 조화, 완성, 창생 등을 강조하고 있다.

이러한 3의 안정성과 조화에 대한 상징성은 원래 솥 鼎자로 나타난다-중국 고대의 국가를 상징한 寶器-다소 변형되어 불전에 향불을 담아 올리는 그릇으로도 이용되었는데 세 개의 다리가 달려있다. 만약 다리가 네 개면 지면이 평탄치 못한 경우에 안정되게 서 있을 수 없으나 다리가 셋일 때에는 어떠한 요철바닥에도 더 넘어지지 않고 안정성 있게 서 있을 수 있다.[13]

삼신사상은 또한 한민족의 종교로 발전하였는데, 현재에도 한국에서는 그 수가 막대하다. 대종교, 국선도, 단군신앙, 단군교, 단군국교 단군종교 등의 이름으로 불리워지고 있다. 그 중 대표적인 대종교의 정의를 보면 다음과 같다. 삼일신고(三一神誥)의 삼일(三一)은 삼진귀일야(三眞歸一也)

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11) 박시익, 한국의 풍수지리와 건축, 일빛 1999, p.56

12) 노자, 오강남 풀이, 道德經, 현암사, 1997, p.183

13) 구미래 <한국인의 상징세계>, 1992, p.18

니 천지인(天地人) 삼합(三合)의 진리가 바로 하나의 진리에서 나와 그 하나의 진리로 귀일(歸一)한다는 뜻으로[14] 단군을 교조로 삼고 홍익인간(弘益人間)의 삶을 살아가려는 한국의 민족주의적인 종교다. 이러한 삼신사상의 단군교는 삼일신고(三一神誥)의 가르침이라 하는데 이는 "혼원천지(混元天地, 하늘과 땅이 질서가 아직 서있지 않은 혼돈 상태)의 민족의 첫 임금이 되시고 "위로는 하늘을 받들고 아래로는 땅을 내디디며 그 가운데 사람이 존재한다"[15]는 것이다. 권태훈옹에 의하면 "이는 또한 천부경(天符經)의 '일시무 무종일(一始無 無終一, 하나는 없음에서 비롯했고 없음은 하나에서 그친다)이요 일이삼 삼이일(一而三 三而一. 하나이며 셋이고 셋이며 하나이다)'의 원리이다. 이것이 곧 상천(上天) 하지(下地) 중인(中人)이라 무에서 하나가 생기고 하나가 도 하나가 되고 또 하난가 되어서 삼재(三才 천지인)로 나뉘어진다. 한국의 교조는 일기화삼청(一氣化三淸) 하고 삼청화일기(三淸化一氣)하는 온원일기(混元一氣) 무엇이라고 형용할 수 없는 태초의 한 기운을 숭배하며 이것이 바로 태극무극유극(太極無極有極)의 원리이다".[16] 특히 그는 1 양은 하늘을 뜻하는데 이는 남자의 외신 생식기가 하늘을 본받은 것이며, 2는 땅을 뜻하는데 이는 여자의 자궁이 땅을 본받아서 음양이 배합되었으므로 사람의 일동일정(一動一靜)이 천지의 본을 받지 않음이 없다고 하였다. 그러므로 무엇을 "안다"하는 것은 천문, 지리, 인사를 다 알 때에만이 진정으로 안다고 할 수 있다고 역설하고 있다.[17]

또한 많은 박수와 무당들이 단군을 주신으로 섬기고 있으며, 무속 사회에서는 단군을 섬기는 사람들이 그 계급에 있어 가장 상위권이라 한다.

이러한 삼신사상은 한국의 건물에 있어서도 그 바탕이 되고 있다. 경복궁의 가장 운치 있는 건물로 손꼽히는 경회루에는 연못에 세 개의 섬을 만들고 다시 그 섬 위에 높이 누를 올린 독특한 공간 형태를 이루고 있다. 이러한 형태는 조선시대의 고유한 철학인 삼신사상을 바탕으로 하고 있다. 한국 전통 건축에서 삼신사상이 나타난 최초의 건물은 강화도 마니산의 참성단이다. 삼신사상에서는 봉래산 영주산 방장산 등 신선이 살고 있는 세 개의 산을 삼신산이라고 한다.[18] 이 삼신상의 사상은 일본에도 전해져 연못이나 정원에 세 개의 돌을 세워 놓고 삼신산이라도 하고 있다. 또 경회루는 섬에 세워져 있어 그 곳으로 가기 위해서는 다리를 건너야 하는데 이 다리 역시 세 개의 다리로 되어 있다. 이 역시 삼신 사상에 의한

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14) 청산선사, 국선도 3, 국선도 도서출판, 1994, p.321
15) 권태훈, 백두산족에게 告함, 정신세계사, 1991, p.91
16) 권태훈, p.92
17) 권태훈, p.131
18) 박시익 <풍수지리와 건축>경향신문사, 1997, 270-271

것인데 세 명의 신이 경회루에 오르기 위해서는 세 개의 다리가 필요하다고 보았기 때문이다. 강화도 마니산의 참성단도 세 개의 출입구를 만들었는데 이 역시 삼신이 각각 출입하기 위한 것이다.[19]

IV. 3을 신성시하는 다른 예들

이상의 삼신사상에서 보여주는 3의 완전함은 웅녀가 3x7일만에 인간이 된다는 3의 반복으로 완성되는 인간의 상징이 들어 있다. 한국에는 이와 같이 3을 신성시하는 예를 얼마든지 찾아 볼 수가 있다. 여기 몇 가지 그 예를 들면 다음과 같다.

제주도 신화에서는 고을나 부을나 양을나 세 성씨의 신자(信者) 신화.는 세 처녀를 맞이해 각자 결혼하여, 첫째는 제일도에 둘째는 제이도에 셋째는 제 삼도에 거처를 삼아 오곡의 씨를 뿌리고 마소를 기르기 시작하였고 그러자 비로소 세상은 완전한 형태를 갖추었다는 이야기와 제주도 개벽 신화에서, 암흑의 세계에 천황닭[天皇鷄]이 목을 들고, 지황닭[地皇鷄]이 날개를 치고, 인황닭[人皇鷄]이 꼬리를 쳐 크게 울자, 갑을동방에서 먼동이 트며 천지가 개벽한다는 내용[20]에서도 천지인 셋이 신화의 세계를 이루는 요소임을 보여주고 있다. 아이를 점지해주고 아이의 병을 다스려 성장을 관장하는 삼신할머니는 무신도(巫神圖)나 무선(無線) 등에 세 사람의 승려로 나타난다. 세 신이 합쳐졌다고 삼신이라고도 하고, 삼신상에 차리는 메가 세 그릇이라는 데서 삼신을 뜻한다고도 하며 기능을 중시하여 산신(産神)이라고도 한다. 삼신할머니는 아이의 탄생과 직접 관련을 맺는데 그 의미는 음과 양 두 힘의 조화에 의해 제 3의 생명이 탄생한다는 형이상학적인 명제에 근거한다. 오늘날 강원도 지방에서는 음력 3월 3일을 삼신날로 정하여 제사를 지내고, 충북지방에서는 아이가 태어난지 3일과 7일에 삼신이 온다고 하여 상을 차리는 풍습이 있다.

남해안에서는 주로 3월에 배를 만들고 배돌보를 올리고 상량할 때에 제물을 진설하고 제주를 돌보에 세 번 부어 배가 잘 만들어지도록 기원한다. 배를 만드는 동안에 분쟁이 있으면 돋대를 붙잡아 맨대실의 멍에를 도끼로 세 번 내려친다. 배가 완성되면 선주는 3일간 배 안에서 잠을 자면서 현몽을 통해 배선왕을 점지받고 배내림날에는 무당을 불러 3일간 굿을 한다. 여기서 3은 액을 제거하고 복을 부르는 [除厄招福] 기원이 담긴 주술적인 숫자이다. 배가 진수해서도 왼 쪽으로 세 번 돌아 액맞이 굿을 한다. 중부지방 가망굿에서는 무당이 가망노래를 부르면서 흰 종이 3장을 양손에 들고 사방을 향해 절을 한ㄴ다. 이때의 흰 종이는 부정을 없애는 무구

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19) 박시익,.한국의 풍수지리와 건축, 일빛, 1999, pp.1-27

20) 한국문화 상징사전 p422

(巫具)의 하나이다.

사람에게는 사람이 태어난 해로부터 9년 만에 주기적으로 수재 화재 풍재 또는 관재의 3재가 찾아와 3년간 머무르는데, 삼재에 든 사람은 3마리의 매를 종이에 그려 문설주에 붙여 액막이를 하거나, 삼수일체의 독수리 그림이나 삼두일체의 물고기 그림 부적인 삼재부르 지니고 다니며 삼재가 나갈 때까지 나쁜 일을 하지 않으며, 매사에 매우 조심한다.

사람이 죽으면, 염라대왕의 사자가 망자를 편히 모셔가라는 뜻에서 사자상에 짚신 3켤레와 밥 3그릇, 북어 3마리 등을 차린 사자밥을 놓는다. 각각 세 벌씩인 까닭은 저승사자가 천황사자, 지황사자, 인황사자 셋이기 때문에 그 몫대로 놓은 것이다. 제주도의 큰 굿 시왕맞이에서 불려지는 무가 멩감 본풀이에서, 죽은 사만이는 저승사자들이 찾아오자 시왕맞이굿을 하며 관대 3벌, 띠 3벌, 신발 3켤레, 황소 3마리, 쌀 3말 등을 차려 놓고 액막이를 한다. 후한 대접을 받은 3사자가 저승에 돌아가 사만이의 명을 고쳐 놓아 사만이는 3000년을 살게 된다.

이렇게 한국의 풍습과 관습뿐만이 아니라, 한국의 전설이나 동화에서는 3을 신성시하거나 영웅시하는 사례를 많이 찾아볼 수 있다. 이야기 속에서 첫째와 둘째가 실패하고 셋째가 성공하는 사례, 은도끼, 금도끼, 그리고는 나무도끼 이야기, 선녀의 날개 옷 전설에서 아이 셋 낳을 때까지 날개옷을 주지 말라고 한 것은 아직도 안정이 되지 않은 것을 상징 한 예이다.

이러한 3은 종교적인 어휘나 행사 관례 등에서 흔히 찾아 볼 수 있는데 이 때에도 대부분이 3을 신성수로 상징하고 있음을 볼 수 있다. 불교에서는 三覺을 각기 本覺, 始覺, 究竟覺으로 나누어 깨우침의 근본을 기술하고 있으며, 세계를 三界로 나누어 천계, 지계, 인계라 하고 중생이 사는 세 세계를 셋으로 나누어 욕계, 색계, 무색계라 하고, 시간을 과거, 현재, 미래로 나누어 전생, 현생, 내생으로 보고 저승, 이승, 저승으로 나누어 저곳, 이곳, 저곳으로 지칭하는 거리감을 셋으로 부른다. 또한 三苦가 있는데 이는 고의 인연으로 받는 苦苦, 즐거운 일이 무너지는 괴고, 無常流轉의 모든 행동으로 인한 인고의 세 고통이 그것이다. 三過는 三業:(불) 몸, 입, 뜻이 저지르는 잘못을 이른다. 삼월 삼짓날 제비가 오는 날로 봄을 맞이하며 불교에서는 이 날 대덕한 스님을 천거하는 풍습이 있으며, 중생을 구하기 위한 관세음보살의 33가지 변신이 있다. 하나의 대상에만 마음을 집중시키는 일심불란의 경지를 三昧라 한다. 부부는 길고 긴 3생에 걸쳐 끊어질 수 없는 깊은 인연으로 맺어진 삼생연분이라 한다. 불교에서는 불보(佛寶), 법보(法寶), 승보(僧寶)를 삼보(三寶)라 하고, 아미타불, 관세음보살, 대세지보살을 삼불(三佛)이라 하며, 경장(經藏), 율장(律藏), 논장(論藏)을 삼장(三藏)이라 하고, 무탐(無貪), 무진(無瞋), 무치(無癡)의 삼선(三善), 좋은 과보를 받을 시(施), 자(慈), 혜(慧)의 삼선근(三善根) 등을 일컫는 성수

(聖數)로 3을 삼고 있다.

유교에서는 三綱이라 하여 유교 도덕에서 기본이 되는 세 가지 綱-君爲臣綱, 父爲子綱, 夫爲婦綱를 들고 있다. 三戒의 공자의 교훈이 있는데 청년시대에는 여색을 장년시대에는 투쟁을 노년시대에는 利慾을 경계하라는 것이다. 한편 높은 자리에서 아랫사람의 말을 듣지 않고 연로하여 교만해지며 듣기만 하고 행하지 않는 일을 임금이 경계해야 할 3구라 했다. 인생의 3락은 부모가 구존하고 형제가 무고하며, 하늘과 사람에게 부끄러움이 없으며, 영재를 얻어 가르치는 것을 군자의 3락이며
맹자가 재산 축적에 전념하는 일, 자기 처자만 사랑하는 일, 부모의 봉양을 등한히 하는 일이 3불행이라 했다. 공자는 도움이 되는 벗 셋과 해가 되는 벗 셋을 말했다. 정직한 벗 성실한 벗 박식한 벗은 도움이 되는 3벗이요 남의 뜻에 영합해 비위를 잘 맞추는 벗, 말만 번지르르하고 마음이 음험해 실천이 없는 벗, 줏대가 없고 진심 없이 외면만 부드러운 벗은 해가 되는 3벗이라 했다.

또한 궁중에서는 三刪이라 하여 죽을 죄에 해당하는 죄인이 비록 자복하더라도 신중을 기하기 위해 세 번 국청을 열고 조사보고 하였다. 또한 三公六卿라 하여 조선 때의 삼정승과 육조판서를 두었으며, 삼과라 하여 생각을 적게 하여 신을 쉬게 하고, 기호와 욕심을 적게 하여 정을 쌓으며, 말을 적게 하여 氣를 기르는 養生法을 三養이라 한다. 관례 때 세 번 관을 갈아 씌우는 三加, 임금이나 왕의 배우자가 될 사람을 세 번 고른 다음에 정하는 삼간택이 있다.

천도교에서 三敬이라 하여 에서 敬天, 敬人, 敬物을 지키게 하며
신선이 거주한다는 봉래산, 방장산, 영주산을 삼신산이라 한다. 신선이 사는 옥청, 태청, 상청을 삼청(三淸)이라 부르며 해 달 별을 상징한 세 신상을 삼청상(三淸像)이라 한다.

제사에는 삼적이라 하여 세 가지 적(-소, 육, 어)을 올렸고, 발이 셋 달린 토기를 삼족 토기라 하며, 제사 때 술잔을 세 번 올리는 것을 삼헌이라 한다. 민간의 풍습으로는, 전녀위남 하기 위하여 의식을 치르는데 수탉의 긴 꼬리털을 세 개 뽑아 임부의 요 밑에 몰래 넣어두거나, 남자를 상징하는 활줄을 임부의 속허리에 매어놓고 석 달 만에 풀면 아들로 바뀐다고 믿었으며 삼신 할머니께 밥과 국 세 그릇을 떠놓고 아기가 무사히 자랄 수 있도록 치성을 올리기도 했다. 사람이 죽으면 영혼이 삼 년 동안 집안에 머물다가 승천한다는 믿음에 따라 비롯된 3년 상이 있다. 또한 여자가 시집을 가면 소경 3년 귀머거리 3년 벙어리 3년으로 시집살이를 했다.

끝으로

이상에서 살펴 본 바와 같이 한국인의 수 개념에는 단군신화로부터

시작되는 3의 신성수 사상이 깃들어 있다는 것을 볼 수 있다. 이러한 한국인의 3에 대한 상징세계는 여러 종교적인 어휘나 관례, 궁중의 역사적인 행사와 이름, 속담, 전설, 서민들의 풍습과 세례에 이르기까지 그 영향이 지대하다. 이상은 수 3을 통하여 한민족에 스며 있는 상징세계의 일면을 살펴 본 것에 지나지 않으며 이는 한국어를 25년 가까이 가르쳐 온 필자의 개인적인 관심의 발상으로 한국문화에 좀 더 근원적으로 접근하여 가르치려는 시도의 하나로 이루어진 발상이다. 삼신사상이 역학의 원리를 세웠든지, 역학의 10간 12지 사상이 한국으로 들어 온 것인가가 중요한 것이 아니라, 그러한 삼신사상과 음양오행설이 생생히 실생활 속에 살아 있고, 그것을 기저로 생활하는 한국인의 면모를 살펴 본 것에 지나지 않는다.

삼신사상의 단군신화와 그것에 의해 만들어진 한국어는 두 명 네 명이 짝지어 걸어가도 3355로 짝지어 가고 있었다는 비논리의 논리가 근저로 되어 있다. 왜 33인이 기미독립선언서에 서명을 했는지 하는 의문을 풀 수는 있겠으나 한국인이 왜 3을 선호하는지에 대한 이유로서 1) 모든 인간의 원초적 심리라든가, 2) 종교적 이유라든가, 3)굳이 음양오행설의 영향 4)한국인 고유의 기호(기마민족의 말 달리는 소리...)라든가 하는 것에 대해서는 다른 기회에 다루기로 하겠다.

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The Film, the Poem, and the Story: Integrating Literature into the Language Curriculum

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Integrating literary works into a language course syllabus can add much life to textbook lessons.

As most of us with the experience of teaching language have already seen, the inclusion of literary works amidst grammar and vocabulary drills bring in fresh air to liven up a straight lesson-based regimen. It also supplements expository readings by showing what language can do besides communicate. It provides a natural opportunity for discussions of issues that are at the heart of both literature and language: What is the relationship between individual and society? How does literature and language reflect and/or respond to lived life? And in the particular case of Korea, why do people speak differently to different kinds of people and what does that difference mean to the nature of human relationships that are formed in the context of something called culture? In a larger context, experiencing literature can be a pleasurable way of allowing the students to use the skills being acquired and refined in the classroom to remind them of how language can be used not only to communicate but also to express oneself in ways that are comforting, disturbing, surprising. Coupled with the notion of literature as consolation (for what has been lost), the notion of literature as something that has the power to shock the audience/reader into a realization of something that was not realized before informs my present discussion on literature and language. I would like to discuss the relevance of the three genres of literature (poetry, fiction, and film) to the purpose of incorporating literature into the language curriculum.

The impediment to introducing Korean literature into a language classroom appears to stem from the difficulty of the students, especially at the elementary and the intermediate level, to grasp the complexities within a given literary work which may not be commensurate with their experience in the language learning process. This might necessitate deferring the teaching of literature, for the most part, to begin with the second year of language when the students are likely to have acquired the basic structure and components of the language to be orientated toward reading. Film, however, with its emphasis on the immediacy of the visual, can be introduced early; as the availability of feature films with subtitles increases, movies become the popular choice for instructors wanting to add variety to the lecture and drill setting and to fend off the unwelcome postures of boredom and apathy.

Movies with mass youth appeal, generally comedies based loosely on Hollywood models, e.g., "Two Cops," seem to require less understanding of background knowledge and less effort by the instructor to act as liaison between student and film, yet the virtue of their easy access can also become their vice; they can be ready babysitters when the instructor is away or simply too exhausted to teach but leave little to be discussed afterwards. "Beat" is another film with a wide appeal among college age students yet can be proven to be effective in leading to discussions about the realities of Korean society, e.g., the gap between the haves and the have-nots, the limited choices for those on the have-not side, as well as about the more nuanced perspective on physicality one can introduce in the discussion on how a culture accepts and rejects violence. Of course, at the first year level, the discussions would be most effectively facilitated in English.

The Case of the Challenging Film

The various aspects of culture and history manifested by the more challenging films (since most of us would like the students to learn at least as much as to be entertained) can intimidate or bore the unprepared student. I have heard of serious endeavors such as the slow-moving "Festival" (축제) putting students to sleep. After showing Pak Kwangsu's "To The Starry Island" (그 섬에 가고 싶다) to my own group of a dozen first-year Korean language students, it was illuminating to see their varied responses to the dramatic portrayal of the simple lives in a small, sea-coast village torn irrevocably by the convoluted vagaries of war. I sensed throughout the screening that many of them, particularly some of the Korean-American students, were uncomfortable. Noting the discomfort in the restless energy of few pairs of legs shaking under the table, stoic faces of another few, and a look of piqued interest on the face of an Anglo-American student, I had a sinking feeling that my effort to have my varied students take on the challenges of watching a film fraught with shamanistic practices and the rustic and uncodified manners of the peasant class would be frustrated. The discussion period following the film was silence punctuated by comments such as, "I thought the film showed Koreans as sex-hungry and savage," "I didn't know they had hicks in Korea" and "It was confusing, because the movie went back and forth and I didn't know what was going on." While the first comment was made by a Korean-American engineering major proud of his Korean heritage and ashamed at what he considered to be ignoble description of the people of good manners, the second comment came from a German-American Freshman whose sole contact with Korea had been smart and highly successful Korean-Americans from his high school, one of which was his girlfriend whose parents he was trying to impress by studying Korean. The last came from a level-headed premed student, who had little trouble with the content of the film but with its aesthetics as marked by the director's choice to not tell the narrative chronologically.

The above responses to a movie with no allegiances to blockbuster Hollywood was pedagogically illuminating for the following reasons: they spoke of the different perspectives taken on by students of different backgrounds and by students with differences not only in their knowledge of a particular culture but also in their degree of openness to the generally porous nature of culture. It is easy and sometimes meaningful to contrast the responses of the heritage students to those of non-heritage students, because our cultural backgrounds often inform the way we receive literature. The first student was reacting genuinely to a cinematic depiction of culture that appeared to be odds with his own ideas of proper Koreans observing proper (middle class, Confucian) Korean values; he was clearly disturbed at the rupture between the image in his head and the image on the screen. The second student, whose sense of adventure in imagining Korea stemmed from his limited, extrafamilial contact with Korean culture, was neither offended nor appalled; rather, he was fascinated at the possibility that not all Koreans were well-educated and urban. The third student's response, as superficial as it sounds, was most literary in the sense that he was concerned with form and not simply with content for its own sake. I also note that this third student is also Korean-American to highlight the fact that heritage does not necessarily determine a for or against attitude toward cultural depiction. This is a way of saying that literature is a product of culture but not its handmaiden.

In what I have illustrated above, I would like to point out how film as literature can provoke disturbance and evoke surprise; confusion was perhaps not an intended response yet part of the risk-taking that goes on in the making and teaching of literature. As an instructor concerned with the responses and reactions of students whether they be positive or negative, I felt it opportune to have the students talk about why they liked or disliked the film; where discussion failed to bring up elaboration of their responses other than the one-liners exemplified above, I had them write a short response paper as homework. This helped them to think more thoroughly through the argument which their unelaborated eruptions had already begun to make in class. I would like to emphasize that we as instructors should not feel that aspects of Korean culture, or as they are depicted in narratives, should necessarily be attractive to students, as was not the case clearly for many of the students viewing the above-mentioned film. This is not to say that the movie simply became a serious exercise in intellectual endurance. It would take another type of paper to unravel how *han*, the culturally sanctioned vehicle for consolation through its release (푸리), works aesthetically in a movie like "To The Starry Island," not to mention most directly in a film like "Sŏp'yŏnje" (서편제) to bring the tragedy depicted in the film to a resolution. Consolation (and, yes, most of us would agree that there is something aesthetic, and therefore attractive in this) as a literary value appears more readily in the mode of poetry, perhaps due to emotive-affective response the listener (or the reader who is listening to himself/herself read) is likely to have to certain sounds.

The Case of "Azaleas"

Students are sometimes intimidated by the idea that poetry is "difficult." This is often a legacy that is brought into foreign language and literature courses from English classes where poetry, especially of the Anglo-American persuasion a la Eliot and Pound, is told to have been produced by hard labor on the part of the suffering poet; the logic, then, is that its serious students also put themselves through the labor of analyzing its indeterminacies and ambiguities. Though it is true that sweating in anguish to produce an intelligent interpretation of "The Waste Land" can lead to scholarly respect, poetry is foremost not about having a hard time. Setting aside prejudices which can deter students from spending more than a few minutes equivalent to one brief reading of a poem before giving up in disinterest or despair, we can think about the advantages of introducing poetry into a foreign language setting.

First of all, poetry can enhance pleasure in learning by the very oral nature of its performance and the audience's listening pleasure; even when we think we are simply "reading" a poem, we are hearing it through our own voice. This is not to say that all poems are mellifluous symphonies, and one would not necessarily introduce a poem by Yi Sang to appreciate the "beauty of the Korean language." For this ideological purpose we have Kim Sowŏl, as I shall partly demonstrate. Secondly, its relative brevity makes it more possible for students of limited vocabulary to grasp the work and provides a good reason to stop and have the students focus on the limited number of word units to consider the impact that a deliberate arrangement of a few morphemes can have. To the discussion one can add the notions of voice and tone and how the nuances of language lead to formations of identity and the creation of an emotional register.

When I introduced the poem "Azaleas" (진달래꽃) to a small group of second-year students, none of whom happened to be literature majors, the immediate reaction was that "I don't know what to do with this" look and silence. I had two different students read the poem out loud; both of them faltered, not because their Korean was not good enough to produce a smooth reading but because they were simply self-conscious in thinking they were reading the scary thing called a POEM. Perhaps it would have made the students more comfortable if I had them divide up into pairs where a less public reading and sharing could have occurred (I will try this next time, perhaps supplemented by a taped or native speaker's reading of the work). But, nonetheless, after the initial awkwardness, we went line by line and began to discuss some of the basic and not difficult aspects of the work. I asked some simple questions regarding 1) Setting: What season is it? How do we know and why is this background relevant to the drama unfolding in the poem?; 2) Speech level: why is the speaker using a bygone form of the intentional deferential "겠습니다"(-우리다, e.g., "죽어도 아니 눈물 흘리우리다.") and how can this be used to identify what kind of a person he/she is and who the listener might be?; 3) Vocabulary: Why does the poet choose a strong verbal form like "역겨워" instead of simply "싫어"and what does that do to the tone (emotional attitude) produced in the poem? And 4)Technique: How does repetition of phrases and line endings work to affect the listener, that is both the addressee of the poem and we the readers?

These are not difficult questions to ask, though some time, I learned, should be allotted for the students to gather enough thought and courage to express themselves. Students need time to muddle through their own thoughts where they are asked to simply contribute comments based on textual evidence, rather than to give a relatively quick right or wrong answer. Sometimes the discussion becomes dynamic, other times stagnant, and no amount of preparation on the part of the instructor can safely ward off the second possible scenario. My own recalled experience with the mentioned group yielded some, though not overwhelming, results, which is to say that students were interested enough in the questions to explore the poem in more depth, as long as I had the patience to prod them on gently. Some of the responses to the questions included: spring (because of the flower imagery) and maybe flowers are important to the poem which seems to be talking about a love ending; maybe the speaker is afraid of her lover not ever coming back, so she's using very careful speech to be ingratiating; maybe the speaker hates herself, and that is why she's using such strong language to demean herself; the repeating line endings make the poem easier to remember, etc. What was most interesting to me was that all the students agreed that the speaker was female without me having to intervene. Then, my task was to push them a little in having them thinking about gender and language, how the actual words of the poem led to the unanimous assumption of the speaker's femininity.

How I Was Left ". . . Alone Like the Horn of a Rhinoceros"

I made the mistake of introducing a page from Kong Chiyŏng's novel *Go Alone Like the Horn of a Rhinoceros* (무소의 뿔처럼 혼자서 가라) to the same group of second-year students later in the semester; in the unending silence enveloping me in the classroom, I was the one left alone like the horn of a rhinoceros forging ahead with no one following. There was no breaking of the ice during the discussion session. The lesson was a harsh reminder that fiction requires more breadth of linguistic experience that can be expected of students who were still only used to reading line by line, sentence by sentence on a singular plane of consciousness. My assumption had been that these were students ripe for the passage of psychological interiority; after all, they had, by then, covered all four speech levels which appeared in the particular excerpt. I wanted to show how the different levels of speech in a living, contemporary context could weave in and out of the consciousness of a character. Then, I wanted to show how this interweaving was further woven into the fabric of the narrative in which the narrator's omniscient and measured use of the plain style contrasted with the convoluted mind of someone experiencing a crisis.[1] Well, it proved genuinely too difficult for the students to figure out what was going on.

Though a glossary of some of the words in the text was given previously to their being asked to read the work, it was more than the level of vocabulary that made it difficult for this specific group of students. They were simply not prepared for the level of engagement that was necessary with the multilayered text to lead to any fruitful interaction. After having learned this lesson, I would not introduce such a text to intermediate students again. I surmise that it can be, however, used effectively in an advanced reading class.

The Advanced Class

Now I would like to direct my attention to teaching a course on literature in the original language, which is quite possible at the fourth year level. As I am preparing to teach such a course in the fall, let me present to you my ideas of what might work. The great advantage to teaching such a class would be the variety of literary works that could be covered. Movies without subtitles can also be shown, lending the instructor more freedom to explore what is out there on video. For this hypothetical class, I would include more challenging works in all three genres discussed. For the purpose of our discussion, let me take the example of three specific works[2] and how they could be incorporated: the film version of the novel *The Rose of Sharon Has Bloomed* (무궁화꽃이 피었습니다)selection of poems by Han Yongun and Yi Sang, and an excerpt from a contemporary novel by Shin Kyŏngsuk, *The Floating Rock Temple* (부석사).[3]

I chose the movie *Mugunghwa*. . .. not because I think that it is a great movie, but because
I was curious about its popularity and somewhat bothered by its appeal. Though I have not read the novel and will focus on the movie version, the reactions from the readers in Korea seem to echo those of the movie-going audience.[4] Released in 1995

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[1] This is the scene where Hye-Wan, still grieving over the death of her son, remembers the incident of letting go his hand in traffic and being tormented by the voices of others chastising her for the careless and fatal act, as well as recalling her own voice praying to both Buddha and God for help. See Kong Chiyŏng, *무소의 뿔처럼 혼자서 가라* (푸른숲, 1999), pp. 132-133.

[2] These works are currently placed on the syllabus for the course I will be teaching at Rutgers in the fall.

[3] The section of the novel to be discussed appears in the journal *Creation and Criticism* (Winter, 2000), pp. 171-212.

[4] Catharsis seems to be the basis for reactions such as the movie was "intensely satisfying" and "felt good". See Kwon Hyŏkbŏm in his discussion on the dangers

to mark the commemoration of the fiftieth anniversary of Korea's liberation from Japan, the movie was heralded as a work that celebrates the triumph of national strength and revenge: briefly, the plot revolves around an investigative reporter who uncovers the plutonium brought into South Korea by the combined nationalistic efforts of Park Chung-Hee and a Korean physicist residing in the States; the ending is disturbingly "sub-imperialistic"[5] with the dropping of a nuclear bomb in Japan and the envoy from Japan kneeling in front of the President of Korea. What bothered me was how nationalism, problematic to those of us in academia and unconvincing outside its limited, ideologically satisfied audience, took on an intriguing turn to mask the nature of its ideology: the investigator makes a powerful plea in the movie saying, "Why should we look at North Korea the way they do? (우리가 왜 저들의 같은 시각으로 북한을 봐야합니까?)" The "they" here is, of course, the United States. With the emotional appeal to look at North Korea differently and to cooperate with them for a nuclear build-up, the familiar anti-Americanism takes on a visceral turn, thus de-demonizing North Korea and christening the nuclear arms race as love of undivided nation.

These are some of the issues I would like the advanced students to address in watching this film. The objective would be for them not only to enjoy the drama weaving fiction and history in both local and international contexts, but also to consider the ways in which why sometimes enjoyment could be problematic. They would be asked to become critics of the dangers of literature which can manipulate one's feelings to arouse satisfaction based on hostility or even violence. Through discussing the characters in the movie and their motives for the different or common choices they make, I hope to open up a forum for examining the relationship between culture and beauty, i.e., why something is attractive to a group of people and not to others as well as that between history and literature, how what *has happened* to a nation (history) informs how one imagines what *can happen* to a nation (literature).

The same questions may be asked of poetry at more advanced levels of discussion. Han Yongun's prose poems in *Your Silence* (님의 침묵)can be read to address questions of how literature is related to history and is often a response to it, with a desire to change and affect it in some way. Also the specific question of how what one says can operate at a level different from its immediate reference via the mode of allegory can be an important one to address here. Yi Sang's poems, as strange as they might first appear, can be used to talk about the assumptions we

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hidden in the appeal of the movie. See his "민족주의, 국가, 애국심과 보편적 이성: *무궁화꽃이 피었습니다*에 대하여" in *민족주의와 발전의 환상*(솔, 2000), p. 50.

[5] Ibid., 59-60. This is the term that Kwŏn uses to describe the internalized aggression of those equating progress with brute national power, thus demonizing anyone who stands outside, e.g., Japan, the U.S.

make about language and meaning and how literature can say no to conventions that have in some ways turned language into a predictable mode of reference devoid of the sense of the uncontainable nature of reality and the lived life.

If literature can be effective in having us react to life and to the conventions we have built to deal with life, it can also be an attempt at a rich reflection of it. For this I have chosen a work which has come recently to my attention: a work that depicts the contemporary life of two South Koreans dealing with the loss of love and trust, a familiar modern motif. What I like about the work is that it is full of dense, enjoyable as well as informative, descriptions of what it feels like to live as single person in an 오피스텔 and it shows how interesting and eclectic contemporary, relatively young Koreans can be. It is not great literature but rather one aware of its modest aspirations; the fact that it was chosen by the journal *Creation and Criticism* to be published in an excerpt form also shows that it is also work not without social consciousness: the protagonist is someone who has worked hard to afford her own small apartment and one who has been betrayed by a man who married a woman of more substantial means. I have chosen this work also because the author herself learned to write by transcribing by hand Cho Sehŭi's *Dwarf Launches a Rubber Ball* (난장이가 쏘아 올린 작은 공) a work which will be covered in the class for its high social relevance and extension of knowledge. Influence of one writer upon another, as in all literatures, is something salient in Korean literature and an issue to be raised in a literature class: How does the individual writer relate to his/her predecessors and to the community of other writers as a whole? This is to point out the notion of legacy as it exists in literary history.

Conclusion

By giving an account of various levels of successes and failures, along with some wishful planning for a future class, I have given a random sampling of what might work in approaching the teaching of literature in a language curriculum. Instructors are like any other recipients of literature. We experience varying degrees of likes or dislikes and have different reasons for including the selected works in our course syllabi. Through trial and error, we continue to hone our skills as teachers, and suffice to say that no amount of preparation on the part of the instructor can guarantee a smooth sailing, vibrant classroom dynamic. As for the specific milieu of teaching Korean language, culture, and literature at the college and university level, we are in some ways caught in the bind between translating the notion of Korean culture as something coherent, thus, recognizably different from other cultures, and dismantling the false sense of culture as "pure" and bound by nation-state borders. In some sense, we are both promoters and critics of uniqueness; this is the dilemma we can impart to our students to help them see that culture is something to be both appreciated and criticized.

Part V

Technology and Web-based Instruction

Exploring the Possibilities of WBLT for Operational Testing Purposes: Web-based Korean as a Foreign Language Test

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1. Introduction

Recently, web-based language testing (WBLT, hereafter) or Internet based assessment has attracted a growing number of teaching professionals, in particular, language testers (Douglas, 2000; Hudson & Park, 2001; Roever 2001). Currently, the mode of language testing is at a transitional stage from paper and pencil (P&P) format to (network based) computer-based (or –adaptive) one (Brown, 1997). In addition, the increasing use of the Internet for education, particularly, for distance education, has drawn educators to explore the possibilities of the Internet/World Wide Web (WWW) as a tool for various assessment purposes.

This paper aims to examine the current status of WBLT with the various facets of its use in language testing. Since the development of WBLT is still in its initial stage, a particular focus needs to be given to exploring the possibilities of WBLT for language teaching/learning and language testing. Also, in the last part of this paper, a brief report will be given of a project that has been undertaken by the National Foreign Language Resource Center (NFLRC) at the University of Hawai'i at Manoa (UHM). The NFLRC at UHM has conducted a testing project to develop a testing platform on the Internet for Korean as a foreign language testing. In this paper, the research results obtained from the pilot stage of the project will be presented and, based on the results, further discussions and suggestions for the use of WBT for Korean as a Foreign Language Testing will be made.

1.1 Definition of WBLT

Various definitional terms to refer to WBLT have appeared and been, without much difference in meaning, used in the relevant literature: web-based testing, Internet based testing/assessment, etc. Throughout this paper, web-based language testing (WBLT), among those designations mentioned above, will be used. *WBLT* refers to a language test or a set of language tests, which are to be practiced on the Internet. WBLT is written in HTML, a language that was developed and is still evolving particularly for the WWW use, if necessary, with enhanced interactivity by scripts[1] or programming languages[2].

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[1] JavaScript (or JScript)

[2] Perl, Java (Applet), etc.

Depending on the purpose of a WBLT, the format may vary and the intensity of scripting/programming will differ, however, if you have experience with a commercial web site such as Amazon.com and have placed an order for a specific product, you are already familiar with the basic format of WBLT. The only difference could be your motivation and willingness to perform the required steps to complete the tasks throughout your navigation.

In this paper, the types of WBLT that are for development in the present time will not be discussed. If you are interested in such topics, you may want to refer to a recently published paper available online by Roever (2001)[3].

1.2 Potential of WBLT in Language Learning and Teaching

The potential of WBLT have already been recognized in many academic institutes throughout the world. Currently, many institutes are engaged in WBLT related projects focusing on different contents and types of test to be developed. It appears, however, that language and distance education has proven to be the most promising aspect and WBLT has been developed and being used as an independent or a joint project with some other content areas (Bachman, 2000). Among those WBLT related projects, the NFLRC at UHM and University of California at Los Angeles have been engaged in a WBLT development with different focuses.

As for the role of WBLT for distance education, WBLT can play a critical role in cyclic program development/management with students by providing direct feedback of their own performance and with instructors who wish to monitor their students' engagement in a program and progress throughout a curriculum.

Together with other web-based materials or alone, WBLT can also play a role in language promotion for less commonly taught languages in the US, such as Korean, through the Internet, a tool that has become the most crucial medium for world wide communication. The Internet, which is often realized by web-browsers, could provide learners with more dimensions, with more graphically appealing video/audio properties, and with greatly enhanced interactivity with the users.

1.3 Advantages/Disadvantages of WBLT

The advantages and disadvantages/limitations of WBLT depend mostly on its use. The users or the developers of WBLT need to consider these two extremes and then make tradeoffs based on the merits and the purpose of a WBLT within a program.

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[3] The URL for the paper is http://llt.msu.edu/vol5num2/roever/default.html.

1.3.1 Advantages

Realization of a better testing environment using multimedia capacity – WBLT developers can integrate their WBLT with audio, images, and videos. This feature of WBLT enables the testing environment to approach closer the real life tasks, which entails better realization of test authenticity. In cases where the items are written to test test-takers' abilities to utilize computers for various academic purposes, WBLT can provide the best testing environment for such assessment purposes.

Enhanced interactivity between a test and its takers: better and faster feedback supports – WBLTs written by HTML and enhanced by scripts (e.g., JavaScript) can provide immediate feedback on the test-takers' performance. This enhanced interactivity enables test-takers to refer back to their responses and correct themselves without much distance between their performance and the feedback. Also, tracing of test-takers' test-taking actions and answering behaviors becomes easily achievable with WBLT by adding programmed or scripted components.

Enhanced familiarity for the mode and the format of the test – It appears that in many circumstances, test-takers are already familiar with the mode and the format of WBLT. FORMs and multi-media capacity have already long been used on the Internet and in fact the use of such capacity can create an easily approachable and affordable testing environment for test takers as described earlier. Unlike testing programs with standalone computer software, WBLT can be practiced utilizing web browsers, such as Internet Explorer and Netscape Navigator, currently the most common platforms for Internet use. It was often noticeable, during the piloting stage for the project at the NFLRC, how easily students dealt with the testing sites with such capacity. Although the test developers prepared the tutorials before the actual test, it appeared that most of the students found the tutorials unnecessary and were confident that the testing site was manageable without going to or referring back to the tutorial section.

Less limitation of time and space for test administration – When the security of the test is not at a high-stake level, anyone can access the testing site using the Internet and try out or seriously take the WBLTs anywhere and probably at anytime. The only cost required from the test-takers' side would be an Internet connection and use of a web browser (e.g., Netscape or Internet Explorer), which is free to download. This great flexibility of WBLT distinguishes WBLTs from other testing methods, computer-based tests and paper and pencil tests. However, this feature also limits the extensive use of WBLT for other than low- or medium-stake testing contexts. Further discussions regarding this limitation will follow shortly.

Ease of test data storage and analysis – For language teachers, this feature can reduce the teachers' scoring and databasing duties following a test administration. The responses from the students will be formatted, ready to be saved into a computer, and could be analyzed using statistical analysis programs without further tedious formatting procedures.

1.3.2 Limitations and Suggestions

When a new system or a new mode for an old system is introduced into a field and is starting to be used, not only is it inevitable to understand its advantages, but also limitations of the system need to be carefully examined before it is put into practice. In the case of WBLT, limitations mostly come from its limited contextual use and the new technical demands needed to deal with a new mode of testing .

Limitation in its use – An apparent problem with WBLT comes from its security and identification concerns. Since test items will reside in either the client- or the server-side, a very proficient computer user, although it is not easy, may want to reveal the items to the world. Also, when a WBLT is taken in a private space, there is almost no means to ensure the identification of the test-taker. Therefore, it is highly recommended that WBLT be practiced in low or mid (only in special cases) stakes testing situations where test takers can be supervised in a controlled space.

Limitation based on computer system capacity – Although WBLT requires only limited computer capacity, modem/LAN connection/speed can affect test takers' performance significantly. In particular, when there is a time limit with a set of WBLT, item loading speed can crucially affect test takers' performance on the WBLT. As a possible solution, WBLT developers need to consider the size of individual files on one test page and should measure approximate loading time using the slowest Internet networking environment. Apparently, that will affect the type of item able to be developed for WBLT since using images or sound files will greatly affect the size of a testing page. Therefore, again, there needs to be tradeoffs between types of items and each file size.

Limitation for non-Latin based languages: font utilization – When the target language is not Latin-based, there should be explicit instructions on how to utilize the target font in the Latin-based Windows. In the case of Korean, test-takers can use Input Method Editor (or other Korean font display programs), which was developed by Microsoft for some Asian language users. Fortunately, with higher versions of Windows, fonts other than English are automatically integrated; therefore, this issue of font utilization will be minimized soon. In the meantime, however, there should be good instructions on how to obtain the necessary software to use the target fonts, how to install, and use them. Also, during the piloting stage of the NFLRC project, it was noticeable that students were confused with subtle differences[4] with the Korean fonts on screen and the ones in their textbooks. Currently, only limited numbers of Korean fonts are available for screen display. If it is the case that the difference between fonts for two different uses could affect sensitive measures in testing situations, WBLT developers need to find ways to manage such problems.

Test takers' unfamiliarity with the web environment and the format of WBLT – Generally, it was found that college level Korean WBLT takers did not reveal any significant difficulty in using the WBLT site developed by the NFLRC at UHM. However, it is still recommended to provide clearly instructed tutorials for a WBLT site. Needless to say, it can be crucial in particular when a testing group is not homogeneous with various backgrounds and computer literacy (Kirsch et al., 1998).

2. WBLT Project at UHM

2.1 Introduction to the Project

The NFLRC at the University of Hawai'i at Manoa has conducted a project for WBLT development. The main purpose of the project was to develop a prototype and also operational testing platform on the Internet for less commonly taught languages such as Korean, Japanese, Chinese, Vietnamese, and Filipino. In its initial stage, the Korean language was chosen as the first target language for the project and the Korean program at the Department of East Asian Language and Literature (EALL) at UHM cooperated in the data collection for the project.

The initial goal of this project was therefore to develop WBLT for the Korean language, primarily for operational testing purposes. An innovative aspect of the project was the creation of interfaces for some or all of the tests according to World Wide Web standards.

2.2 Korean Web-based Testing (KWBT)

In addition to the contribution of WBLT for distance education, WBLT can be of great use in enhancing the status of a less commonly taught language such as

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[4] For computer screen – 굴림 (*Gulim*, 가 나 다 라 마 바 사 아 자 차 카 타 파 and 하) and fortext writing – 신명조 (*Sinmyengjo*, 가 나 다 라 마 바 사 아 자 차 카 타 파 and 하)

Korean in the U.S. For instance, development of a testing site for Korean could promote the recognition of the status of Korean in the US. Still not many academic institutions in the US provide Korean courses, and even those that do differ greatly in their students' population. Providing various Korean learning materials may not be affordable for a single institute. However, by providing various learning tasks (for instance, for the purpose of a self-assessment) and materials on the WWW, learners of Korean throughout the world can visit the site and enjoy learning Korean. Therefore, the significance of the project lies in two aspects: its contributions to the field of Korean teaching at UH and in the US, and active adaptation of technology into language testing in general.

2.3 Procedures

In the fall of 2000, the first KWBT platform was developed and put on a test with the Korean program at UHM. The KWBTs were administered achievement based, that is, for the mid term and final test for the Korean courses. Students for Korean as a foreign language from five classes – Korean 101 to Korean 202 with two sections of 201 – participated in this piloting stage. One student from each class was asked to perform think-aloud procedure while taking a test and an interview was followed right after the procedure. All the students after the testing procedure were also asked to fill out a survey form which asked three different aspects of the KWBT that they just took.: general, content, and technical.

In this paper, part of the data from the piloting stage will be presented and discussed in the following sections.

2.4 Results of the Project

Descriptive statistics –Table 1 presents the descriptive statistics from the test results. Since the number of subjects and items were not large enough, other statistical analyses based the data were not attempted.

Table 1. 2000 Korean online tests results

	Mid-term exam				Final exam			
	K[a] 101	K 102	K 201	K 202	K 101	K 102	K 201	K 202
K	31	43	46	43	42	53	50	47
N	10	12	16	17	10	12	21	18
Mean	23.70	28.67	26.00	31.12	32	38.25	29.7	28.39
Mode	28.00	25.00	25.00	31.00	33	44	31	27
Median	25.50	29.00	25.00	31.00	33	41	30.5	28
SD	6.09	5.53	6.23	6.66	6.63	6.37	5.97	4.95
R	0.89	0.77	0.78	0.86	0.87	0.81	0.73	0.63
Hi-Lo	30-12	37-16	35-17	41-18	40 - 10	45 - 28	40 - 9	38 - 19

Our focus with the descriptives in Table 1 was mainly on the reliability measures, which are denoted as *R* in the Table. Although the number of subjects was not large, most of the reliability measures resulted in relatively high. Only Korean 202 for the final test was a bit low with 0.63. Therefore, it appears that the KWBTs used were reliable as an achievement measure for the Korean courses at UHM.

Descriptives of questionnaires – Among the questions in the follow-up survey for the KWBT, the result of one item, "Which of the testing methods listed below do you prefer?", is presented in Table 2.

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[a] Korean

Table 2. Descriptives of questionnaires (1: Paper & pencil, 2: Computer-based test, and 3: Both)

	Mid-term exam			Final exam		
	values	no of resp.	%	values	no of resp.	%
K 101	1	2	25%	1	3	33%
	2	4	50%	2	4	44%
	3	2	25%	3	2	22%
K 102	1	4	33%	1	5	45%
	2	4	33%	2	3	27%
	3	4	33%	3	3	27%
K 201	1	7	47%	1	10	83%
	2	1	7%	2	0	0%
	3	7	47%	3	2	17%
K 202	1	7	44%	1	4	29%
	2	5	31%	2	3	21%
	3	4	25%	3	7	50%
Total	1	20	39%	1	22	48%
	2	14	27%	2	10	22%
	3	17	33%	3	14	30%

Except for the Korean 201 students, the majority of the students answered for either 2, Computer-based test or 3, both. This result indicates that students were not much resistant to the new mode and medium of the test, and rather they saw WBLT as a necessary assessment step that they would need to get used to. Some students particularly showed great favor with the KWBT indicating that they considered the KWBT more interactive and integrative with images and sound reflecting their actual language use. They also pointed out that the immediate feedback after completion of a test was very helpful to refer back to their performance and to correct themselves. Therefore, the KWBT served not only in assessment, but also as enhancing test-takers' learning of Korean.

As for the Korean 201 students, it appeared they were not satisfied with WBLT mainly due to its higher difficulty. As Table 1 shows, the performance of Korean 201 was lower than the other classes. Also, due to some logistic reasons, teachers for Korean 201 classes decided to consider only the results of the listening sections and that might have affected the students' performance also.

3. Conclusion and Future Suggestions

Apparently, the data presented and discussions made are not very supportive due to the small number of subjects who participated in this study. The project is still on going and it is expected to accumulate more data in the near future. In addition, changing the direction of the project, more various facets of WBLT and their effects on performance are to be investigated in more depth.

Users of WBLT need to be deeply concerned with the purpose of the test. The format, the degree of the interactivity, and intensity of all the programming effort for a WBLT will be determined based on its purpose. Apparently, WBLT could be more time and energy consuming, in that it requires its developers relatively more specified skills for its development and its users more understanding of its format and how it operates. As I have mentioned throughout this paper, WBLT users and developers will often times need to make a decision as to the use of a WBLT based on the tradeoffs between various testing and logistic reasons.

In addition, more in depth investigation is necessary to understand the difference between WBLT and other types of test such as P&P and network-based CBT. Changing the mode of testing from one medium to another may introduce one or more variables into the validity of a psychological testing. Researchers have argued that the difference in mode of reading and/or testing could entail different performance on a test/task by a test-taker (Piolat et al., 1997; Reinking, 1987; Sawaki, 2001). Such issues need to be examined and addressed further. In order to validly address issues related to the validity of WBLT, WBLT needs to be investigated within every context and at the same time based on empirically obtained data.

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Increasing Korean Oral Fluency Using an Electronic Bulletin Board and Wimba-based Voiced Chat

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Introduction

UBC's Korean language program has six course websites from the beginning to the advanced level (Korean 102, 104, 200, 300, 410 and 415), funded by UBC's TLEF (Teaching and Learning Enhancement Fund) project and other sponsors for the last 5 years. The web sites have been implemented with WebCT and incorporate audio and video components. WebCT, a web course authoring program developed at UBC 5 years ago, is one of the leading tools delivering course contents on the web, and enhancing interaction between students and instructor.

Each of the Korean 102, 104, 200, and 300 course websites contains course content as well as an asynchronous text forum called Bulletin Board and an asynchronous voice forum called Wimba. The Bulletin Board is a discussion forum that enables participation in course discussions at any time and any place. Wimba was the first company to create voice message boards. It uses a free-to-install Java Applet, which runs in Internet Explorer, Netscape and AOL browsers. A user can hear messages and record his/her own voice at any time.

This paper will talk about the benefits to students gained from using the two forums. In particular, this paper centers on the activity of Korean 104 forums to see how a teacher can help to improve both accuracy and fluency in reading, writing, listening and speaking. The purpose is to understand how language teachers can apply technology as a supplement to course work to help students more effectively learn the target language skills of reading, writing, listening, and speaking. This article is divided into five sections. The first section briefly introduces the course. The second and third sections discuss the benefits gained from using the Bulletin Board and Wimba Voice Board, respectively. In the fourth section, I will make some initial suggestions about how teachers might help students improve their target language learning based on my teaching experience. Finally, the last section will address conclusion about/prospects for using instructional technologies better in future language classes.

1. Course Description

Korean 104 is a beginner's course for heritage learners of Korean and other students with prior background in spoken Korean. The class I taught consisted of 7 students, (6 Korean-Canadians and 1 non-heritage student with a

Korean wife). This course is designed for students who have some background in spoken Korean but have less skills in reading and writing. The purpose of this course is to help students acquire a balance in reading, writing, listening, and speaking Korean. The class (4 hrs-1wk) includes a one-hour lab each week focused on the on-line forums (Bulletin Board and Wimba). Three projects were assigned during the two terms which required Internet search and collaborative work.

The weighting of marks for participation in both forums was 20 % of students' final mark. However, I did not require them to participate in the two forums for an arbitrary number of regular postings or recordings because I was worried that obligatory participation might hinder the flow of natural conversation. On top of that, I wanted to see how my students enjoyed the forums as part of their learning context, as it was the first introduction of the forums into Korean classes at UBC.

For evaluation of participation in the forums, I chose self-evaluation at the end of the two terms. The self-evaluation form (see the appendix) asked students to assign themselves grades according to the UBC grading system of A+ to D-. In the following two sections, I will demonstrate some benefits gained from my teaching experience with the two forums.

2. An asynchronous Text Forum: WebCT's Bulletin Board

The Bulletin Board, a threaded discussion forum, is one of WebCT's features and is used to supplement course work. Asynchronous computer-mediated communication (CMC) illustrates a means of promoting language learning and academic content that is different from traditional face-to-face classrooms. As Warshauer (1997) points out, the features of CMC are 1) information that is text-based and computer-mediated, 2) communication that is many-to-many, 3) time-and place-independent, 4) long distance, and 5) distributed via hypermedia links. As seen in Carey (1999), Warshauer (1996), Nunan (1999), and Kamhi-Stein (2000), CMC helps students improve not only language, but also academic levels based on collaborative learning.

The benefits gained from participation in the Bulletin Board can be summarized as follows:

1) Increased Computer Literacy (Internet Access and Typing Skill)
2) Increased Reading and Writing Skills
3) Increased Collaborative Learning

Increased Computer Literacy: Technologies such as the Internet change the concept of literacy, and demand those who can adapt to quick changes and understand diverse societies in terms of multi-cultures and multi-languages. "When technologies of meaning are changing so rapidly, there cannot be one set of standards or skills that constitutes the ends of literacy learning, however taught" (Cope and Kalantzis, 2000). In this light, the students who participated in the discussion on the Bulletin Board as a part of course activities learned not only Korean language but also the skills of exploring web sites, downloading files, and typing Korean. Thus, the skills they learned from the course can be applied to their daily activities, e.g., for corresponding via email in Korean with increased typing skills. A course supplemented with CMC upgrades a student's computer literacy. In particular, students who want to participate in on-line discussions at home under English Windows, can download Korean programs to read and write Korean such as Microsoft Global IME and Asian Suite onto their home computer. Those students who experienced success in terms of downloading programs and operating them successfully are pleased to see their computer literacy increase. The following examples explain how they struggled with typing Korean and they achieved typing skills in Korean (observe dates).

Figure 1.1: Attempt to type Korean

Article No. 6: posted by student A on Wed, Sep. 27, 2000, 21:27
Subject: I'm trying again...

I'm going to try the dialogues once again tonight... If it still doesn't work, I give up 조 선생님~! This Korean typing is hard...I took forever just typing those words...
But it's cool, too~ Bye!

Figure 1.2: Effort to type Korean

Article No. 7: posted by student A on Wed, Sep. 27, 2000, 21:47
Subject: I'm trying again

I listened to my dialogues again and it works perfectly fine~ I don't know why it didn't work last time... So, what should I do now 조 선생님?

Figure 1.3: Growing skills in typing Korean

Article No. 13: posted by student A on Sat, Oct. 7, 2000, 00:44
Subject: Introduction Homework

안녕하세요~! 김예리입니다. 저는 캐나다사람이에요. 그런데 요즘 학교에 한국말을 배워요. 저는 써리에 살아요. 그래서 학교하고 집이멀어요. 저는 동생하나가있어요. 여자이에요. 지금 저는 졸려요. 시간이 늦게에요. 저는 자요. 주말에 많이 놀아요~! 안녕히계세요~!

Increased Reading and Writing Skills: The activity on the Bulletin Board helps improve reading and writing. The active interaction between student and teacher, and among students themselves on the forum is extended to another learning environment where students can practice their reading and writing and get feedback for the accuracy from the teacher at any time. As Mohan (1986) points out, "But doing is not an alternative to knowing; it is a way of knowing. And activity is not an alternative to talk; it is a context for talk." The discourse on the forum explains how the students expand their learning by doing and talking. They reported that the amount of time for reading and writing was incredibly lessened as compared to the beginning of the participation thanks to the increased opportunity to practice and get feedback from the teacher. The following discourses show how my students performed in their homework so that they could improve accuracy and fluency in their reading and writing, and how I gave my students feedback on their writing.

Figure 2.1: Let's cook Korean cuisine.

Article No. 418: posted by Sunah Cho on Thu, Mar. 22, 2001, 06:31
Subject: 요리를 합시다!

여러분 안녕하세요!
자, 오늘은 요리를 해봅시다. 라면, 볶음밥, 불고기 중에서 가장 좋아하는 음식을 요리해봅시다.(모두 다 포룸에 글을 쓰세요.)
1. 한 가지를 고르세요.
2. 어떻게 요리하는 지 설명하세요.
3. 재료가(materials) 무엇이 필요한 지 말하세요.
호박(zucchini), 양파(onion), 파(green onion), 당근(carrot), 간장(soy souce), 식용유(frying oil), 참기름(sesame oil), 깨(sesame), 소고기(beef), 쌀(rice), 밥(steam rice), 냄비(pot), 후라이팬(pan), 설탕(sugar), 계란(egg) 중에서 선택하세요.
4. 다음 동사(verbs)를 쓰세요. 끓이다 (broil), 볶다 (fry)
5. 누가 요리를 가장 맛있게 했어요?

Figure 2.2: Cooking Korean cuisine

Article No. 442: posted by student B on Mon, Mar. 26, 2001, 23:52
Subject: 라면먹읍시다!

저는 라면을 끓읍니다. 먼저 물을 끓어요.그리고,강장하고 참기름을 물안내 넣으세요. 수푸를 끓기동안,양파하고,당근을 잘라요. 그리고, 소고기를 후라이판에 구워요. 물안내면을 넣으세요. 야채하고 고기도 넣요.다 끝나면 계란을 라면위에 넣으세요. 다됐습니다!!

Figure 2.3: Corrections to errors

Article No. 533: [Branch from no. 442] posted by Sunah Cho on Wed, Apr. 4, 2001, 17:33
Subject: re: 라면먹읍시다!

민욱씨, 안녕하세요.
민욱씨 라면도 정말 맛이 있겠군요! 사실 저는 한 번도 라면에 참

기름을 넣어본 적이 없습니다. 그럼 민옥씨 라면을 한 번 먹어볼까
요?
>저 는라면을끓읍니다. 먼저
저는 라면을 끓입니다.
>물을끓어요.그리고,강장하고참기름을물안내넣으세요.
물을 끓여요. 그리고 간장하고 참기름을 물 안에 넣으세요.
>수푸를끓기동안,양파하고,당근을 잘라요. 그리고,
스프가 끓는 동안 양파하고 당근을 잘라요.
>소고기를후라이판에구워요. 물안내면을넣으세요.
물 안에 면을 넣으세요.
>야채하고고기도넣요.다끝나면계란을라면위에넣으세요.
야채하고 고기도 넣어요.
>다됐습니다!!
네, 아주 맛이 있었습니다.

Figure 2.1 is teacher's message posting an assignment to cook Korean cuisine with the expressions covered in class and the vocabulary shown in the message. Students were very interested in Korean food because it is part of their daily life. Figure 2.2 is a student's activity report telling how to cook Ramyon noodles based on his own experience and background. Interestingly, many different recipes came out depending on their different background knowledge and experiences, even though they had posted the same cuisine. Figure 2.3 is an example of feedback to correct mistakes or errors in his writing.

With regard to error correction, there is endless argument as to whether and to what extent error correction can be a factor in improving communicative competence. I agree with Aljaafreh & Lantolf (1994) that error correction has a positive effect, but must be adapted to each individual learner. In my Korean class, any incidental or systematic correction was avoided at the beginning of the term, since it might hinder the students' participation before the ice was broken. Messages with embedded errors were untouched by the teacher. However, errors should be corrected to prevent recurrence. Following Praubhu (1994), I tried to correct any grammatically incorrect forms in students' expressions "more fully as well as more correctly" considering individual differences by stepping gradually from implicit forms to explicit forms.

Thus, as seen in Figure 2.3.1 below, the errors were implicitly corrected by having the sentence restated with correct expressions after everyone became comfortable with each other in the middle of the term. In the next step, the errors were explicitly corrected by quoting the incorrect forms as seen in Figure 2.3 and 2.3.2 as well. While I did error corrections on the forum, I found that the errors on the bulletin board were not caused solely by their lack of linguistic knowledge but mistakes. They could be carelessness in typing or computer compatibility in Korean fonts incorporated with Microsoft global IME or Asian Suite. Frankly, encoding and viewing Korean on the computer can still be onerous at times, despite the rapidly-developing technology.

Figure 2.3.1: Implicit error corrections

Article No. 71: posted by student C on Thu, Oct. 19, 2000, 13:45
Subject: 안녕아세요

제 요자친구 이름 테리이에요. 테리가 19 이에요. 제 이름이 이경원이에요.
오늘 시옹 무지 오료워서요. (I don't know how to do past tense stuff)
시옹 잘 못밧어요.

Article No. 73: [Branch from no. 71] posted by Sunah Cho on Thu, Oct. 19, 2000, 13:56
Subject: re: 안녕아세요

경완씨, 아, 경원씨 여자친구 이름이 테리에요. 테리씨가 19 살이에요. 오늘 시험이 어려웠어요? 그래서 시험을 잘 못 봤어요? 그러면 다음 제 8 과 시험을 잘 보세요. 공부를 많이 하세요.

Figure 2.3.2: Explicit error corrections

Article No. 396: [Branch from no. 388] posted by Sunah Cho on Mon, Mar. 12, 2001, 00:14
Subject: re: 토니씨 - 프로젝트 4

혜선씨, 토니씨
선생님이 고친(Correct)것을 다시 보십시오.
> 한국정치 문제를 어떻에 생각해요?
아이구, 아주 어려운 질문이군요!!
> North 한국에 가난한사람들 을어떻에 도와해요?
North 한국은 "북한" 이라고 합니다. 북한의 가난한 사람들을 어떻게 도와주어야 해요?

Collaborative Learning (Community Sense): Collaborative learning has emerged as a significant issue in the integration of language and content. The concept of collaborative learning originated from Dewey's (1966) dialectical relationship between the individual and social consciousness. In Dewey's problem-solving method, the school and the classroom were seen as microcosms of the community, in which learners worked together to solve shared problems. Also, the concept can be found in Vygotsky's (1978) concept of a 'zone of proximal development'. As Gee (2000) notes, "the core idea is that novices, largely unconsciously, 'internalize' or accommodate to the goals, values, and understandings of those more expert than themselves through scaffolded joint activity with those others and their associated tools and technologies." In this sense, activity on the Bulletin Board sheds light on the efficiency of collaborative work. The given assignment needed to work with teams to produce their answer. The students were supposed to visit websites which introduce authentic and natural Korean culture, as Choi (2000) suggested. The following show how they collaborated with one another to do the task.

Figure 3.1: Task 1

Article No. 313: posted by student D on Fri, Feb. 23, 2001, 18:32
Subject: 토니씨

한국음식 외브사이트를 봐서 단군의 땅을 차잤어요. http://Koreafood.co.kr/seoul/kwangjin/dangun/nadri.html 이 사이트를 좀보세요. 오늘 대답하세요.

Figure 3.2: Task 2

Article No. 318: posted by student E on Sun, Feb. 25, 2001, 03:07
Subject: 프로젝트 2

식땅은 단군의 땅에요 단군의 땅은서울에 있어요. 식땅 안에 너무 깨끗에요. 그리고 다른방을 많았고 좋아요. 높은 하늘하고 열린마당이니까 이식땅을 갈거에요 음식을많이 주문하고 많이 먹얼서에요. 동치미 냉면을 아주 쉰에보요. 값이 5000 원에요. 도토종 된장찌게를 주문할거에요. 된장값이 5000 원에요. 그리고 갈비탕을 먹을서에요. 갈비탕은 값이 6000 원에요. 음식값는 싸니까 이식땅을 좋아해요.

Figure 3.3: Task 3

Article No. 319: posted by student E on Sun, Feb. 25, 2001, 03:14
Subject: 헤선씨

헤선씨 미안합니다 어제 조금 바빴어요. 지금 친구가 자니까 숙재를 했어요

Figure 3.4: Task 4

Article No. 320: [Branch from no. 319] posted by student D on Sun, Feb. 25, 2001, 06:43
Subject: re: 프로젝트 2

프로젝트 2 를 아주잘했어요 토니씨. 식당이 많이 멋있지요? 시험공부 하세요?

The above Figures (3.1-3.4) show how the students' interaction evolved into productive activities to fit the assignment by working together. A student showed her partner an interesting website related to the assignment in Figure 3.1. Her partner did not respond to her immediately, so apologized for his laziness in Figure 3.3. Finally, he posted his assignment, as seen in Figure 3.2, after exploring the website his partner had suggested. She praised his good work in the end in Figure 3.4. They encouraged each other to work hard and praised what had been done by other partners. Figures 3.5 to 3.7 show how students' conversations constructed a form of social activity and sense of community.

Figure 3.5: Social Interaction 1

Article No. 321: posted by student F on Mon, Feb. 26, 2001, 19:44
Subject: 누구나 골프를 칠래?

여러분 안녕! 내일밤에 친구랑 eaglequest 가고 골프를 조금 칠거에요. 누구나 같이 가고싶어하면, 화요일에 저한태 말해요

Figure 3.6: Social Interaction 2

Article No. 331: posted by student G on Tue, Feb. 27, 2001, 22:01
Subject: Tony Tony Tony!

오늘 제가 "Coyote Creek" 에서 골프를 쳤습니다! "Coyote Creek"이 이년 전에 이름을 "Eaglequest"로 바꿨습니다! 골프 참 재미있었습니다. UBC 골프장 좋습니까? 같이 어때요?

Figure 3.7: Social Interaction 3

Article No. 335: [Branch from no. 331] posted by student F on Wed, Feb. 28, 2001, 23:32
Subject: re: Tony Tony Tony!

경원씨!!! 골프가 즐거웠어요 잘쳤어오? 같이 가겠어요. 민욱씨하고 케빈씨하고 가자 UBC 골프장 아주 좋아요 그런데 값은 너무 비싸요 보통 40 불인데 twilight rate 은 30 불이에요. 언제나 가고싶으면, 제한테 말해요!!!!

As seen through Figures 3.5 and 3.7, the students' conversations developed towards more individualized topics. In addition to that, many social activities -- plans for a picnic, a field trip, and an invitation to a birthday party -- were found on the Bulletin Board. They developed personal relationships while doing the team-work and formed their own culture around their hobbies. Consequently, they were highly interactive in classroom conversation.

3. Asynchronous Voice Forum, Wimba

The Wimba voice products are highly intuitive and easy to use. Messages are archived and message structure is easily visualized with threaded message trees like WebCT's Bulletin Board. Wimba doesn't need any complicated recording, encoding and uploading procedures such as are necessary with traditional streaming audio.

Listening and speaking to each other plays a very important role in learning languages because language is composed of the four skills of reading, writing, listening and speaking. Despite the beneficial learning experience centered on reading and writing from the Bulletin Board, it is not optimal for improving listening and speaking. As Carey (1999) points out, fluency in reading and writing can be transferred to speaking fluency. However, a more significant way of improving accurate listening and fluent speaking is needed for balanced language proficiency. In this sense, Wimba impacts on language learning, in particular, in the on-line learning environment. In my class, Wimba was used for listening and speaking practice, and for oral examinations. The benefits gained from using Wimba in my class can be summarized as follows:

1) Handiness (no need to carry Equipment)
2) Accuracy and Fluency in Listening and Speaking
3) Positive Assurance to Students

Handiness (no need to carry Equipment): Wimba functioned as a substitution for homework assignments requiring self-recording in my class. In the beginning of the term, recording assignments are essential to correct students' deficient pronunciation and twist their tongues closer to Korean articulations. Traditionally, students recorded their voices on their own cassette machines, and brought the tapes to class. This was cumbersome and time-consuming, as the teacher had to listen to the assignments with different sizes of cassette tapes on different equipment. However, Wimba frees the students and teacher from this physical annoyance. Besides, teachers can give students feedback with ideal pronunciation through Wimba instead of writing sentences pointing out the problem on paper.

Accuracy and Fluency in Listening and Speaking: Wimba enables students to hear their mistakes and to practice difficult pronunciations until they sound perfect. They can hear the teacher's pronunciation as many times as they want, and eventually their pronunciation improves. Limited class time can not provide sufficient opportunity to practice pronunciation and reading. In particular, the course I taught was very intense and was supposed to cover the equivalent of two courses of grammar structures, ranging from primary intro to intermediate intro. Therefore, the opportunity for conversation between students and teacher, and between peers was not enough to promote their listening and speaking in class. Fortunately, the students answered that the two skills significantly improved by the end of term.

Positive Assurance to Students: The Wimba was used for oral examinations as a substitute for face-to-face oral examinations in order to save time and lessen students' stress about these tests. Doing the test by recording themselves while sitting in front of a computer makes them less nervous than a face-to-face interview. If they miss the questions, they can listen to the questions until they understand them. Also, they can correct their mistakes by re-recording until they are satisfied within the time given. Students can concentrate just on the test regardless of other distractions in the physical environment such as the interviewer's emotional body language, which can affect the interviewee's attitude. In addition, the same environment (amount of time, numbers of questions, sitting in front of computer) is given to all the students. Testing can be another form of learning in addition to assessment. In this light, testing via Wimba is meaningful in that it gives students more chances to maximize speaking fluency with less stress.

4. Teaching Strategies with CMC

When I taught Korean 104, my major concern was how to help my students improve their Korean and fulfill their desire to learn Korean culture satisfactorily by exposing them to authentic and natural Korean culture. This was especially challenging as there was no specific teaching material for heritage learners.

For the optimal learning environment for heritage learners, King (1998) emphasizes that we need special tracks and special teaching materials for them. In addition, he suggests that the courses for them should be focused on 'authentic' rather than 'pedagogical' content. Ree (1998) proposes an idea called the 'resource-sharing' approach to reduce the gap between heritage and non-heritage learners in the same classroom, pointing out that two separate learning sections may not be practical due to budget limitations, except for large programs like the University of California at Los Angeles.

I would say a class with CMC fulfills the needs and demands for effective learning (as King's and Ree's suggest) regardless of the heritage vs. non-heritage background of the learners because it can satisfy individual differences through interactive communication as well as incidental feedback and help students learn authentic Korean culture. In this sense, we do not have to worry about the number of heritage vs. non-heritage student enrolled or budget for extra teachers for class separation. We may reduce the significant gap in the prior knowledge of Korean between heritage and non-heritage learners by implementing CMC as a supplement and an extension of the classroom within the existing system. In this case, we might think about another budgetary implication: such as a language lab equipped with computer and server. However, we find that many universities make use of computers. Otherwise, we can use a free program like the Wimba voice board that I used in my class, as many of our students spend a lot of time using computers at home. The more important issue is as Chapelle (1999) remarks: "Our major challenge as language teachers in the 21st century may be to help our students to transform their computer-using time into language learning time," rather than arguing the pros and cons of instructional technologies in language teaching.

The CMC potentially makes a meaningful contribution in teaching a language if the teacher can:

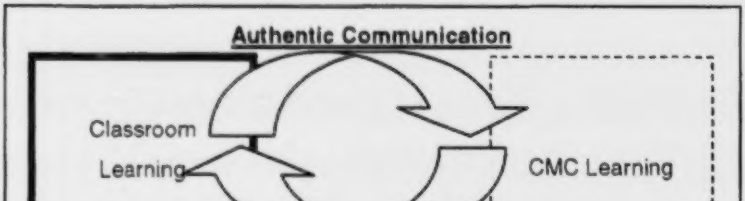
- identify a rationale for using CMC in a classroom
- provide specific guidance and hands-on information about using CMC
- establish open cooperation and collaboration
- integrate language learning and culture awareness
- meet the course goals and students' needs
- has strong energy to support constant feedback with no fear of work overloads
- has a positive attitude to be pleased with students' improvement

According to my teaching experience in KFL, I sometimes get stuck in a teaching style that is influenced by my Korean education and culture background, in which teachers dominate their classrooms. My presentations in front of my teachers were withheld until the preparations were perfect so as not to show any mistakes. The teacher's role was to supervise my performance not to encourage my weakness.

For my own teaching, I tried to use more effective strategies with a teaching style quite different from the way I learned foreign languages in Korea. Therefore, I wanted to be a teacher who could appreciate students' mistakes and create a positive learning environment where students optimize their learning process. However, being a collaborative teacher instead of a sage in the classroom has been very difficult to me due to the influence of my background in learning and teaching. Implementation of CMC in my class allowed me to reduce my power to the extent that I encouraged students' participation and tried not to dominate the flow of their conversation. Under the new teacher's role, a well-prepared and well-organized structure is mandatory for the teacher so as not to lose control, as the teacher is apt to be lost in a variety of demands in more complex curricula.

The following figure demonstrates the relationship between classroom, CMC, and authentic communication context.

Figure 3.8: Learning Context



As seen in figure 3.8, classroom learning and CMC are correlated as learning contexts for students to achieve a better communicative competence in a real communication. Students post interesting stories that happened in their lives onto the Bulletin Board or on Wimba. They also try to practice the expressions they learned in the classroom when posting messages on the CMC. The most important thing is how the teacher successfully integrates the two different learning contexts. CMC context should be an extension of the classroom to meet the course goals. In this context, the teacher plays a very important role in improving students' accuracy and fluency in the four skills by

- supporting error corrections (see section 2)
- stimulating their discussion by means of interesting topic selection
- providing positive feedback on their participation in order to increase their intrinsic motivation
- encouraging their participation as a collaborator or facilitator
- bringing the topics discussed on the forums into the classroom and vice versa to expand knowledge

Conclusion/Prospects

To sum up, the Bulletin Board and Wimba helped improve the four language skills evenly, something which is difficult to do in a traditional class without such tools. As Carey (2000) describes, "SLA also requires an equally iterative process of negotiating and approximating the output prior to actually generating the edited output." One beauty of asynchronous learning context (CMC) is that participants can edit and correct their mistakes before actual output.

In the curriculum, teachers and students alike still regard using the computer as an extra burden in their teaching and learning. It is always emphasized that the success of classes supplemented by CALL is dependent on teachers' attitude toward them. As Cho (2000) states, "A teacher who has positive vision towards using technologies for the class will lead his class to the significant success of teaching and learning." The success of my Korean language students no doubt was influenced by my own enthusiasm for experimenting with text forum, Bulletin Board and voice forum, Wimba, and encouraging them to become fully involved. Using CMC in a language classroom might reduce the significant gap between heritage and non-heritage learners and bridge a gap in the existing system that has no separate learning sections. At the same time, the limited examples in this paper suggest the need for future research focusing on comparative study between heritage and non-heritage learners.

Acknowledgement

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Appendix

Participation Self Evaluation

Self Evaluation	A+	A	A-	B+	B	B-	C+	C	C-	D+	D	D-
1. Did I read and listen to all the conversation on the two forums?												
2. Did I make an effort to contribute to the discussion in a way that provided informative messages?												
3. Did I attempt to invite others into the conversation?												
4. Did I deal respectfully with other's question and discussion?												
5. Did I try to expand my knowledge of Korean language and culture when reading and listen to the conversation by looking up the dictionary or my text book?												

Interactive Online Exercises: Retention of Non-heritage Learners in a Mixed Class

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1. Introduction

One of the most difficult and tenacious problems in the Korean language pedagogy is to have a mixed group of students in a single section of class, often divided into heritage and non-heritage students who differ significantly in their prior knowledge and backgrounds. Unfortunately, the gap between these two groups cannot easily be narrowed even with several hours of extra office-hour sessions. Although it would be ideal to offer separate sections for these different groups of students, the reality would not always allow it, especially in a small program like Korean. This paper is a preliminary report that shows that internet material, *interactive online exercises*, in particular, can be an effective tool to help alleviate this persistent challenge.

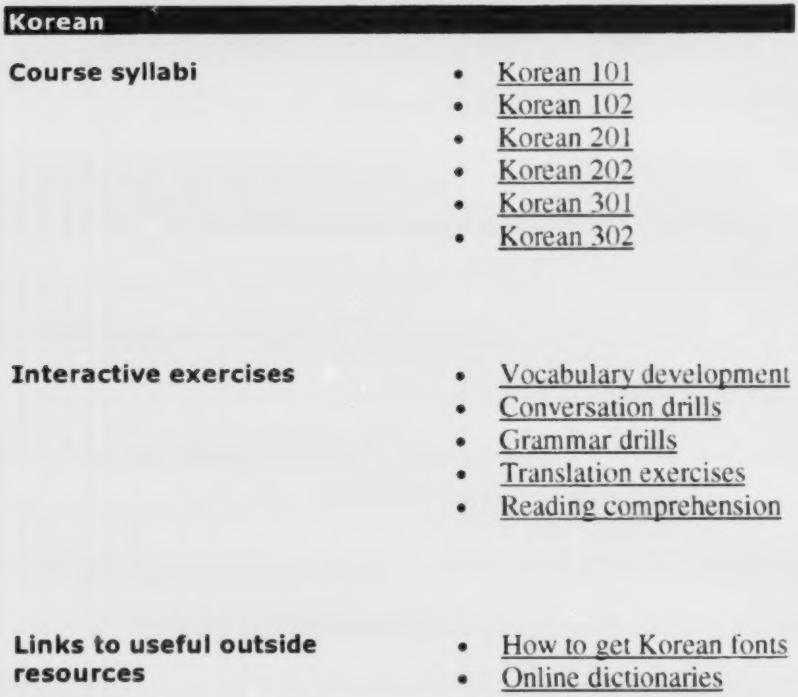
Computer with internet access can contribute a unique element to language learning, especially for the generation of students who have grown up with it and use it with comfort. It can create an environment that is more focused, individualized, easily available and less threatening. These are the features that can empower a minority group of students in a class although they should be welcome by any group of students. Non-heritage students are usually a minority in a Korean language class (non-heritage population does not usually constitute more than 50% even in the very beginning course in a program like ours). They often feel intimidated, insecure, and disadvantaged by the apparently more advanced spoken (speaking and listening) proficiency of the heritage students. Placing the heritage students in a higher-level course is not a solution because their written proficiency is not necessarily any better.

We started developing online materials for our language courses in the Korean program at the State University of New York at Buffalo about a year ago in the summer of 2000. We did not initiate the project targeting any particular group of students. They were meant to benefit any students who take our language courses, especially at the first-year and second-year levels, as supplementary material to classroom lessons. We have had them available to students since the fall semester of 2000. Because it is still at the initial stage, we have not included them as regular requirements of the courses. Nevertheless, according to the casual classroom surveys, roughly half of the students have used them on a regular basis and more interestingly, non-heritage students have been the most frequent users of the material.

2. Online Syllabi and Interactive Exercises

The idea of developing the language program website was initiated as part of the departmental project. In the Korean program, we developed a site focusing on developing online exercises in close connection with the online syllabus for each course. The syllabus for each course was organized by the course instructor in a uniform format and listed in the main page of the Korean language program (http://wings.buffalo.edu/cas/mll/programs/korean_base.html) along with language- and culture-related links such as online dictionary sites, newspaper and TV sites, and traditional and contemporary culture sites. See Figure 1 below.

Figure 1. Main Page of the Korean Language Program



Korean

Course syllabi

- Korean 101
- Korean 102
- Korean 201
- Korean 202
- Korean 301
- Korean 302

Interactive exercises

- Vocabulary development
- Conversation drills
- Grammar drills
- Translation exercises
- Reading comprehension

Links to useful outside resources

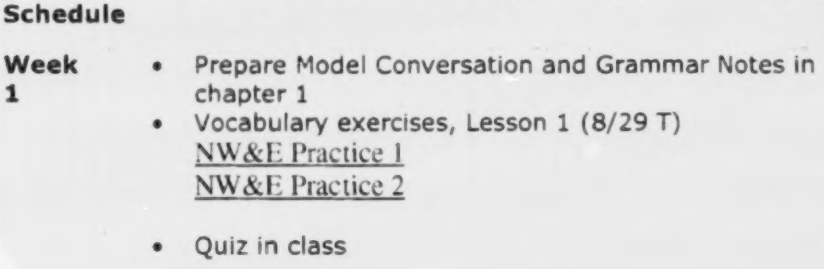
- How to get Korean fonts
- Online dictionaries

- Newspapers
- TV, Radio broadcasts
- Cultural resources
- Korean search engines
- Study abroad in South Korea

Each course syllabus includes the usual logistic course information, online audio clips (linked to the Indiana University site), and the weekly course schedule. What is special is that the weekly schedule has linked a few online exercises per week that are directly relevant to the classroom activities of the week (see Figure 2 for an example). As such, students are guided to follow the schedule and do the exercises accordingly. Since these exercises are based on the textbook and designed by the course instructor(s), they look more like an extension of the textbook and classroom activities (rather than an extra work only for ultra-highly motivated students) and can be used for an individual review or preview session for each class. Also, some of the exercises are similar in format to classroom quizzes, they can be used as preparation material for the quizzes.

From KOR 101 (first-year fist semester Korean) through KOR 202 (second-year second semester), each lesson has different types of exercises in three or four categories: new words and expressions, grammar/pattern drills, conversation or translation drills for low-level courses, and reading comprehension exercises for upper-level courses. We have developed the total of 126 exercises for four courses, that is, 26 for KOR 101, 45 for KOR 102, 30 for KOR 201, and 25 for KOR 202.

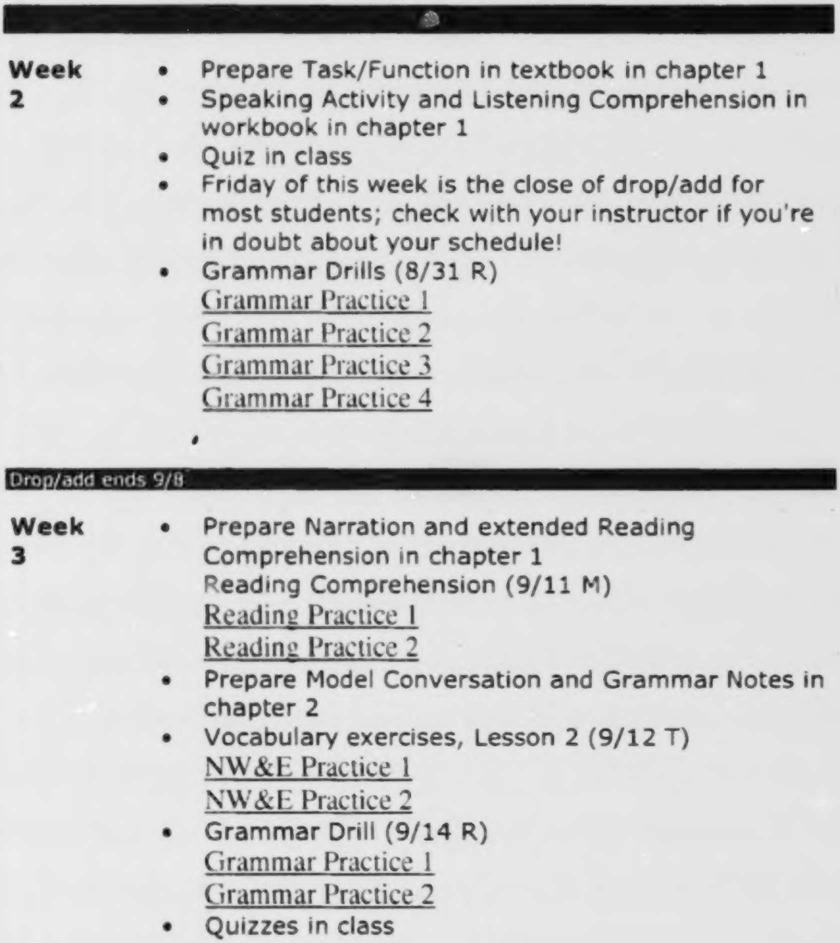
Figure 2. Example of Weekly Course Schedule in Syllabus



Schedule

Week 1

- Prepare Model Conversation and Grammar Notes in chapter 1
- Vocabulary exercises, Lesson 1 (8/29 T)
  NW&E Practice 1
  NW&E Practice 2
- Quiz in class



Week 2

- Prepare Task/Function in textbook in chapter 1
- Speaking Activity and Listening Comprehension in workbook in chapter 1
- Quiz in class
- Friday of this week is the close of drop/add for most students; check with your instructor if you're in doubt about your schedule!
- Grammar Drills (8/31 R)
  Grammar Practice 1
  Grammar Practice 2
  Grammar Practice 3
  Grammar Practice 4

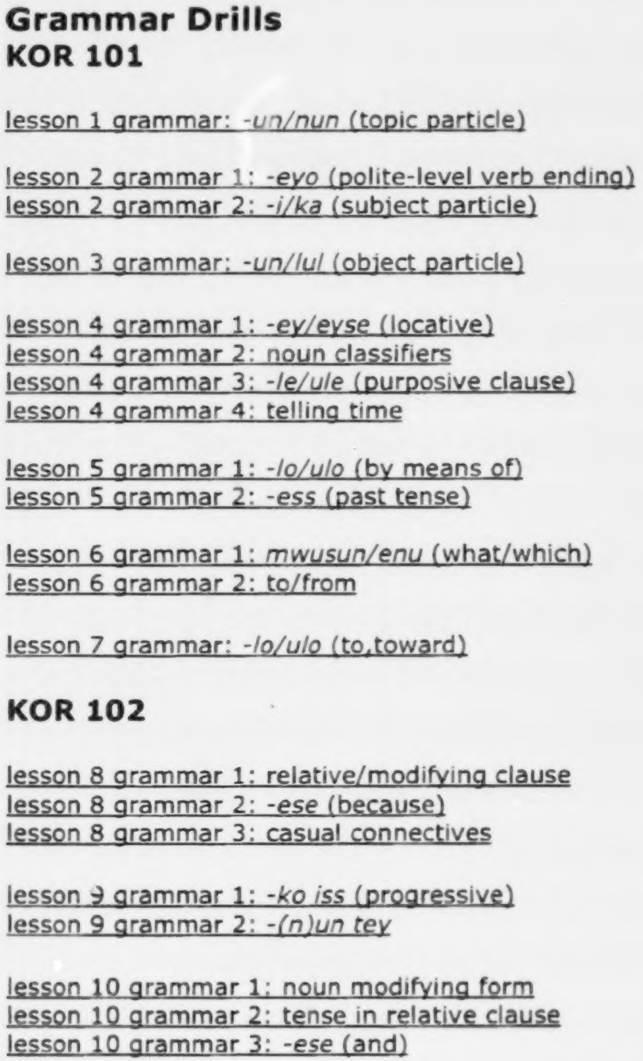
Drop/add ends 9/8

Week 3

- Prepare Narration and extended Reading Comprehension in chapter 1
  Reading Comprehension (9/11 M)
  Reading Practice 1
  Reading Practice 2
- Prepare Model Conversation and Grammar Notes in chapter 2
- Vocabulary exercises, Lesson 2 (9/12 T)
  NW&E Practice 1
  NW&E Practice 2
- Grammar Drill (9/14 R)
  Grammar Practice 1
  Grammar Practice 2
- Quizzes in class

These exercises are cross-listed on the top main page according to the category, e.g., new words and expressions, grammar drills, etc. (see the second section of Figure 1 above).

Figure 3. Interactive Exercises: Grammar Drills



Grammar Drills
KOR 101

lesson 1 grammar: *-un/nun* (topic particle)

lesson 2 grammar 1: *-eyo* (polite-level verb ending)
lesson 2 grammar 2: *-i/ka* (subject particle)

lesson 3 grammar: *-un/lul* (object particle)

lesson 4 grammar 1: *-ey/eyse* (locative)
lesson 4 grammar 2: noun classifiers
lesson 4 grammar 3: *-le/ule* (purposive clause)
lesson 4 grammar 4: telling time

lesson 5 grammar 1: *-lo/ulo* (by means of)
lesson 5 grammar 2: *-ess* (past tense)

lesson 6 grammar 1: *mwusun/enu* (what/which)
lesson 6 grammar 2: to/from

lesson 7 grammar: *-lo/ulo* (to,toward)

KOR 102

lesson 8 grammar 1: relative/modifying clause
lesson 8 grammar 2: *-ese* (because)
lesson 8 grammar 3: casual connectives

lesson 9 grammar 1: *-ko iss* (progressive)
lesson 9 grammar 2: *-(n)un tey*

lesson 10 grammar 1: noun modifying form
lesson 10 grammar 2: tense in relative clause
lesson 10 grammar 3: *-ese* (and)

If a student feels particularly weak in a certain area, for instance, in grammar, then she/he can visit the grammar drill section and choose and practice from the whole collection of grammar exercises organized by the course and lesson number but also itemized as individual grammar pieces (see Figure 3 above for the grammar drill section). She/he can practice the ones that belong to a particular lesson, e.g., grammar 1 and grammar 2 in lesson 1, or any particular piece of grammar that needs some practice, e.g., one on "subject particles", which may be listed in the section for a different course. In other words, a student of KOR 201, for example, can visit the grammar drill section and practice an old piece of grammar (e.g., subject particles) that she/he learned in KOR 101. This way, students do not have to be confined by the course boundary and feel free to go back and forth in search for what they need to improve on.

For individual exercises, we used the built-in quiz templates available free by Quia (http://www.quia.com), a commercial web site that allows teachers to author interactive online exercises and activities that can be accessed by students at any internet-capable computer terminal with a standard web browser. Hot Potatoes is another similar site. They provide free and easy-to-use (user-friendly) tools for creating learning exercises and activities. Teachers use the program's exercise templates to create exercises on web pages which then can be uploaded to a server where students access them. In our case, we created exercises using the templates and linked them both in the weekly course schedule and in the separate exercises sections, as described above. Quia offers a variety of templates of web-based exercises including some fun-provoking game types such as matching game, crossword puzzle, hangman game, jumbled-word game, of which we only utilized the templates of the basic multiple-choice quiz and the pop-up quiz. It was not because we believed that they are the most effective types but because they were the only types that are compatible with the Korean fonts.[1] Quia allows the instructor to set things up so that the quiz scores that the students took be delivered to the instructor's class page automatically with the time that they took them. So the instructor can keep track of who did what and when she/he did it for how long. (We cannot show actual examples of exercises because they are not copyable in this paper format. For examples, visit http://wings.buffalo.edu/cas/mll/programs/Korean-base.html.)

Interactive online exercises have two distinct features from traditional paper-and-pencil exercises: they are *interactive* and available *online*. They are interactive in that their answers are automatically corrected on the spot (possibly with explanations): students need not wait till the course instructor or a TA corrects and returns them back. They are available online so that students can practice repeatedly at the time and place of their choice. Students can control their own pace without any pressure or intimidation from their peers or teacher. This feature is very important especially for non-heritage learners or any learns who feel behind because many of them are often faced with pressure and intimidation in a classroom environment. In other words, interactive online exercises can provide both anonymity and continuing feedback to those who need additional help and encouragement. They can build confidence privately without being conscious of others.

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[1] Korean fonts are not viewable in Java-script programs unless the terminal user has a local Korean Windows. This is also the reason that we used Quia: none of the Hot Potato templates take Korean fonts.

3. A Preliminary Report From a Second-Year First-Semester Korean Course (KOR 201)

As mentioned earlier, we have developed 126 online exercises based on the textbooks for the four first- and second-year courses (KOR 101, 102, 201, 202), from 25 to 45 exercises per course in three or four categories such as 1) new words and expressions, 2) grammar/pattern drills, 3) conversation drills, and 4) reading comprehension. We started having these exercises available in Fall 2000 and recommended, but not required, the students to do them as additional sources of practice. In Fall 2000, 71 students were enrolled in the first- and second-year language courses and in Spring 2001, 67 are enrolled, so the total of 138 students so far have benefited from or been exposed to these online material in our program. After the fall semester was over, we ran a casual survey in the first-year classes and about 2/3 of students in KOR 101 and KOR 102 responded. Among these, roughly half answered that they used online exercises more or less regularly and that they were helpful.

In fact, we kept a close track of the online activities by the 20 registered students in KOR 201, Second-Year First-Semester Korean. KOR 201 has traditionally been a critical course to non-heritage learners in our program. First of all, the number of them drops noticeably, by more than half from the previous course in Fall 2000 (approximately 30-40% (KOR 102) to 15% (KOR 201)). Even the survivors have a very difficult time keeping abreast with the heritage students. Using the Quia's built-in reporting function, students were asked to send in the scores to the instructor right after each exercises has been done. The instructor can see who did which exercise for how long a time and which questions they have got correctly or incorrectly. This is of course a great feedback to the instructor too because she/he can know what the students do not understand very well. The scores of these exercises were not included in the course grade, and therefore, it did not directly matter to the final grade how well they did in the online quizzes. However, a very small incentive was given in terms of extra credit, 0.1% per exercise up to 2 exercises per lesson. So the maximum extra credit a student could get out of these online exercises is 1.4% of the total grade, which is not big. Figure 4 shows which and how many exercises each of the 20 students did. A * on the student list indicates that the student is a non-heritage student, who has no Korean family or language background: Students 4, 6, and 15 are non-heritage students in this course.

Figure 4. Distribution of exercises done by each student

	L1							L2						L3		
	NW-1	NW-2	GR-1	GR-2	GR-3	RD-1	RD-2	NW-1	NW-2	GR-1	GR-2	RD-1	RD-2	NW-1	GR-1	RD-1
S 1			1													
S 2	1	1	1	1	1									1		
S 3																
S 4*	1	1				1		1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
S 5	1	1														
S 6*	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
S 7			1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1		1	1
S 8	1	1				1	1	1	1	1	1			1		
S 9			1	1	1									1		
S 10																
S 11			1													
S 12			1	1	1			1	1	1	1	1	1	1		1
S 13			1					1	1					1	1	1
S 14			1	1	1											
S 15*	1	1	1	1	1			1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
S 16	1	1	1	1	1	1			1	1	1					
S 17	1	1	1	1		1	1	1	1	1	1			1		
S 18			1	1	1			1	1	1	1	1	1	1		1
S 19	1	1	1	1	1			1	1	1	1					
S 20																
Total	**9**	**9**	**14**	**11**	**10**	**6**	**4**	**10**	**11**	**10**	**10**	**6**	**6**	**10**	**5**	**7**

		L4					L5		L6			L7			**Total**
	RD-2	NW-1	NW-2	GR-1	GR-2	RD-1	GR-1	RD-1	NW-1	GR-1	RD-1	NW-1	GR-1	RD-1	

S 1															1
S 2									1	1					8
S 3											1				1
S 4*	1	1	1		1	1	1		1	1	1	1	1	1	24
S 5		1	1												4
S 6*	1	1	1			1	1		1	1	1		1	1	26
S 7	1	1	1	1	1			1		1	1		1		22
S 8			1				1								11
S 9		1			1					1					7
S 10											1		1		2
S 11															1
S 12	1				1		1	1	1	1		1	1	1	20
S 13	1				1				1						9
S 14		1	1				1								6
S 15*	1	1	1		1	1	1		1	1		1	1		24
S 16															9
S 17		1			1				1				1		15
S 18	1						1	1	1	1		1	1	1	19
S 19		1													10
S 20					1										1
Total	7	9	7	1	8	3	7	3	8	8	5	4	8	4	220

To summarize the result, which was shown in the table below (Figure 5), 60% of the registered students did the exercises regularly, namely, at least once per lesson. Interestingly, the regular users tend to be those who needed additional help. More interestingly, the top 15% who made the best use of the exercises, i.e., who did 24 to 26 exercises out of 30 (more than 80% of all), were all non-heritage students, Student 4, Student 6, and Student 15. Through personal communications with the instructor, they all reported that these online exercises were highly helpful in improving their language skills, getting them better scores in the tests and hence better grades in the course, and most of all, building self-confidence. Also, they are fun to do. We quote below an evaluation on our online material by one of the non-heritage students:

> *As a non-Korean student taking intermediate Korean language courses, I found the [...]*
> *website to be a wonderful addition to classroom learning. Not only did it offer practice exercises that reinforced the lessons taught in class, it also gave me a chance to evaluate my own proficiency in the material by taking quizzes. This online supplement helped to prepare me better for exams, as well as gave me a chance to review at my own pace. This was particularly helpful, since the class is comprised largely of Korean students and sometimes it is hard to keep up with them. The website is tailored by our professor, so the material on it is always updated and corresponds to current lessons. There is also a section for extra aid, which offers links to audio clips, a Korean-English Dictionary, and other website that are all quite informative. The [...] website is easy to navigate and student-friendly. I found myself going there at least twice a week and got the support I needed. I did not have to worry about time constraints or repeating the material too many times, as it is entirely up to me. Overall, the [...] website is an academically rewarding benefit to taking Korean classes.*

Figure 5.

# of students (total of 20)	5 (25%)	3 (15%)	5 (25%)	4 (20%)	3 (15%)
# of exercises (total of 30)	1-2	4-7	8-11	15-22	24-26

We found this result very encouraging. Although it may not be only due to the online exercises, all non-heritage students finished the course with good grades. They seemed to feel much more comfortable about the class and the material. Of course, non-heritage students are not the only group who benefited from additional attention and support. It would be naïve to assume that the heritage group is uniform in their background and language proficiency. It was rewarding to see those who are behind, whether they are heritage or non-heritage learners, catch up more easily with the help of the online material. They feel that this help is more accessible than anything because it is available at any time and place where internet connection is provided. Also, this help is free of pressure and intimidation that a face-to-face help cannot sometimes avoid. We had a record-high enrollment in KOR 202 in Spring 2001. We usually experience half the size of students in 202 mainly because 201 is the final course to fulfill the language requirement. However, we had the almost equal number of students in 202 in Spring 2001, which was a great surprise. We believe that this online material made a significant contribution to this unusual phenomenon.

4. Self-Evaluation and Concluding Remarks

As shown above, the online material including the interactive online exercises received highly positive results. It has proved that it could provide a more individualized and less threatening setting for students who need extra support and encouragement. Students appreciate the fact that they could take time at their own paces and be under much less stress than in a traditional classroom or office-hour sessions. Of course, this result is only preliminary, based on a one-semester observation. However, it shows a strong potential of the online exercises as a supplementary tool and material to the classroom activities that have limitations in equally serving different groups of learners.

There are, of course, shortcomings and limitations as well. First of all, students find the formats of the exercises not so exciting and even boring as the same formats repeat over and over. In fact, we expected this problem from the beginning. As mentioned earlier, the online quizzes developed through the Quia site are of multiple-choice type in one form or another. It was not because we wanted to make them that way but because the multiple-choice types, i.e., 'basic' and 'pop-up', were the only templates that would take Korean fonts viewable. It would be desirable to have the exercises in a variety of formats if this technical difficulty is resolved. Also, it would be more desirable to develop some local templates rather than totally relying on outside ones such as those by Quia. As it is set up now, each quiz page created at the Quia site is linked to our courses pages. Therefore, depending on the Quia's server situation, the linking could be very slow or even not available at all although we have not experienced either yet.

Second, in the current formats, we cannot really provide explanations for individual questions although we can give general guidelines on top for the whole quiz. Students have complained that they sometimes do not understand why their answers are incorrect. They can of course ask the instructor in class but then it loses its merit as an on-the-spot helper. Actually, it is not the problem with online exercises in general but with the particular templates we used. Currently, we are working on a template that can give a feedback to each answer that a student has chosen. We should remember, however, that these online quizzes are meant to be only supplemental to classroom activities. They are not intended to replace classes. Therefore, students should be encouraged to discuss with the instructor or other students whatever questions they have on the online material.

Another drawback of these online exercises is that they can more easily be used to create form-focused activities in which the interaction is limited to interaction between the user and the pre-scripted feedback provided by the creator of the activity. It may be considered to be little more than online versions of traditional grammar activities. Our current exercises are also focused on vocabulary, grammar, and reading comprehension drills, which are all designed to promote written language skills, due to the limitations of the available templates. What is good about computer-assisted learning, though, is that we can easily incorporate multi-media elements. For example, vocabulary or conversation exercises can be enriched by audio files so that students can *listen and answer*, not simply read and answer. We could even add video files to create relevant contexts or situations for more conversation-oriented drills. When coupled or tripled with audio or video material this way, exercises can be more pedagogically balanced. Even if we could not incorporate all these fancy tools, we could utilize online exercises such that we spend more time on spoken and task-based activities in classroom and have students practice grammar and other form-based activities using online exercises.

To conclude, based on the result from our case of a second-year class, we find online exercises very useful and helpful in engaging and encouraging especially those students who fall behind even from the beginning in their knowledge and background such as non-heritage students. Students are becoming more and more computer-dexterous and computers with internet access have become such affordable commodities privately and also publicly in most secondary schools and colleges. Computer-assisted language learning and teaching both on- and off-line seems to be an unavoidable path to take in the contemporary age.

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UsingHyperStudio for Teaching Korean

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Introduction

Technology has become one of the significant instructional tools of the teachers. Among various technology methods, the computer has been used as one of the most effective tools for learning and teaching. According to Brown (1994), it has been utilized as an instructional material for second and foreign language learning and teaching for more than 40 years. There have been many researches about the effectiveness of using computer for learning and teaching languages. Willetts (1992) reported that the use of technology in teaching second language has been increasing dramatically over the past few years, and Krause (1989) stated that there are many alternatives available in telecommunication technology, and educators must decide which of these alternatives are most appropriate to meet their students' needs.

Based on varieties of research on the effectiveness of using computer for teaching, many different kinds of valuable and effective educational software have been developed. HyperStudio is one of the most remarkable ones for the education that won 2001 Codie Award for the Best School Based Elementary Education Software. It is very popular education software in the American schools. However, because of the language limitations, it has been not been introduced to Korean language teachers, and hence has hardly been used for teaching Korean as second or foreign language. This paper will introduce the HyperStudio program, discuss what the advantages are of using HyperStudio for teaching languages, and show how to use it for teaching the Korean Language.

What is the HyperStudio Program?

HyperStudio is an electronic portfolio or presentation program compatible with both Personal Computer and Macintosh Computer. Simply stated, HyperStudio is like a Web program without an internet connection. For more than 10 years, HyperStudio has been a teacher's favorite for encouraging students to express themselves and present their ideas as they bring their written projects to life by integrating all multimedia elements and animation. According to the HyperStudio Teachers' Guide (2001), HyperStudio has become and continues to be the market leader because it offers high-end features, an easy-to-use, flexible interface, an extensive support network of educators, courses about multimedia writing with HyperStudio, and a wide variety of independently published books and resources to help teachers and students create better multimedia projects.

Move your cursor around this screen. Click when you see the name of where you want to go.

Figure 1. Image of HyperStudio

HyperStudio 4 System Requirements

The system requirements of HyperStudio 4.0 for PC and Mac are as follows.

Macintosh	**Windows**
PPC 601 or better	Pentium 100
8 MB free RAM	32MB RAM Windows 95, 98, NT 4.0 or newer, 2000
Mac OS 8.1 or newer, 8.6 for Online Help	
QuickTime 3.0	QuickTime 3.0
QuickTime 4 full install preferred	QuickTime 4 full install preferred
	Sound Blaster compatible Sound Card
4x CD-ROM drive	4x CD-ROM
256 colors or higher	256 colors or higher
Active TCP/IP connection for Internet-based features	Active TCP/IP connection for Internet-based features
Internet Explorer 4.5 or Netscape Navigator 4.7	Internet Explorer 4.0 or Netscape Navigator 4.7
	For Korean Language Support: Windows 2000 or Korean Windows Required

The Advantages of HyperStudio

HyperStudio has been adopted as the introductory tool for multimedia/hypermedia authoring for the following reasons: (1) the card/stack metaphor used by HyperStudio is easy for novices to understand and familiar to users of other authoring tools; (2) in place of programming languages or scripting, HyperStudio uses a friendly and intuitive interface that prompts users to make decisions about how their stack looks and operates; (3) multimedia objects, such as sound, animation, and video tape, are very easy to import and use; (4) HyperStudio stacks can be authored to run on both PC and Macintosh platforms; (5) HyperStudio stacks can be posted and run in their entirety on the World Wide Web; (6) Web Uniform Resource Locators (URLs) and other software programs can be accessed from within HyperStudio; and (7) training users to author in HyperStudio takes significantly less time than it does to train them in higher end authoring tools. HyperStudio offers support for the most commonly used graphic file formats and the ability to export stacks as HTML documents for viewing on the Web. It also has the ability to create text hyperlinks or buttons, using a menu to select from a variety of functions. (MES)

HyperStudio and Language Learning

A case study by Lund and Hildreth (1997) investigated an instructional model that incorporated the personal computer and Hyperstudio (tm) software into an assignment to write and illustrate an interactive, multimedia story, and reported the four findings. (1) Writing improved in quantity and quality; (2) students were more motivated to complete the assignment; (3) the computer allowed for greater flexibility in writing due to its nature as a word processing tool; and (4) even a single computer can be effectively used in conjunction with the language arts curriculum in the classroom. Findings suggest that computers can be integrated into classrooms, and that computers can be used to enhance writing instruction and improve the quality of written work.

By creating and presenting the students' project in the language classroom, students develop their listening, speaking, reading, writing and understanding of culture. It is an effective tool to teach students language arts including foreign languages, for it gives students motivation and it makes student-centered language classrooms.

Creating Electronic Portfolios Using HyperStudio in the Korean Language Classrooms

An electronic portfolio activity is an excellent way to encourage individual, collaborative, and cooperative learning. Students working with communication technology have an opportunity to integrate language, social skills, subject area content, and computer skills through the creation of an electronic portfolio using the HyperStudio program. Electronic portfolio means a collection of "cards" created with HyperStudio that have a common theme.

For example, if a teacher asks his/her students to create a section about Korea using HyperStudio, and to present their works in the classroom, the students will gather and save the information about Korea including the pictures and documents as electronic format, and decide what information is the most important to convey about Korea. They will put the culled information into a text box on their HyperStudio card. Then, they will need to place three buttons on each of their cards. These buttons will be used to navigate backward or forward to another symbol card. Through this activity, students learned not only how to create a HyperStudio stack including text fields, graphics, sounds, and buttons but also how to read and write Korean language. After they create their cards, it is time for peer editing. Through this activity, students improve their reading and writing skills. The teachers must tell the students that it is O.K. to have mistakes, for it is a group project where they are working to help each other. The teacher can pair students up and have them read each others' texts, making any suggestions they think would improve the writing; spelling, punctuation etc. Based on the peers' comments, the students will correct their mistakes to complete their cards. Now, it is time to present their cards to the class. Through this process, the students will need to listen, speak, read and write in Korean. It does not matter what topics the students will be given to create cards as their electronic portfolio, and it does not need to be related to Korea. Any topic can be given to them to create their cards that they will write and present in Korean.

Steps to Create a HyperStudio Stack

1) Make a new stack;

Click on the icon of HyperStudio application
Click on "New Stack" "Yes" and "OK".
Click/Drag "Tools" and "Colors" to the side

Now you are on the 1st card. To create a new card, click on New Card under Edit in the menu. Repeat for more new cards. To save your stack, click on File in the menu and choose Save Stack As. Name the file and "Save."

2) Create a Text box:

Use the arrow tool. In the menu, choose "Add a Text Object." (Note marching ants, which means your objects is in selection mode.)
Click on background of card to get "Text Appearance menu"
Choose "Style" – font size, font style, text color, background color, and then OK.
(Note: for a title, deselect "Scrollable" & Draw Scroll bar)
Click on the text box to position and size it.

3) Import a Graphic

Click on arrow tool.
Click on Objects in the menu and choose "Add a Graphic Object"
Select "Disk file" – OK
Choose a picture file
Use the square selector, or the lasso, to select a picture – OK
Position the picture with cross cursor and size it with the double arrow cursor at the corner of a picture
Click on the background to finish
To delete the picture, use the arrow tool, click on the picture, and press "delete."

4) Make a button

Use arrow tool. From the menu, click on "Objects" and choose "Add a Button"
In the button appearance menu, name your button, type: "next"
Click on "icons" to choose a picture for your button – OK
Click on "OK" in the button appearance menu and click on your card (background)
In the "Actions" menu, under "Places to go," Choose "next Card." A transition menu will appear. Choose a transition, a speed and try it. Click OK and then "Done."
Under "Things to do," choose "Play a sound." Select a sound and click "Done." (Optional)
Position your button with the arrow tool.
Test your button with the hand tool.
Repeat Steps 1-8 to make a "Previous" and a "Home" button.

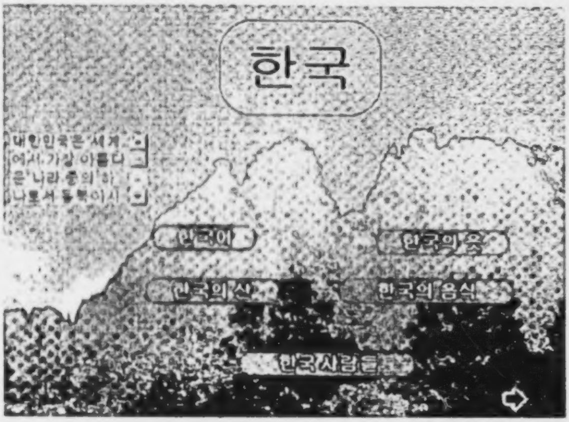
5) Important Tools and Features

Arrow: menu access, to highlight, size and position
Hand: to browse and to push buttons
Selectors: to copy, cut, paste, or delete
Undo: control-z

Quit Application: control-q

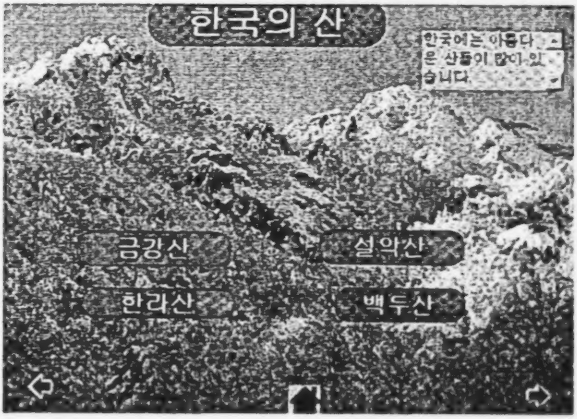
Samples of HyperStudio Stacks on Korea

Figure 1 is an image of HyperStudio, and Figure 2 is a home stack of Korea. Figure 3 is a stack of mountains in Korea, Figure 4 is a stack of Korean language, and Figure 5 is a stack of Korean clothes. These pictures used in the sample stacks have been downloaded from the downloaded files from World Wide Web and inserted



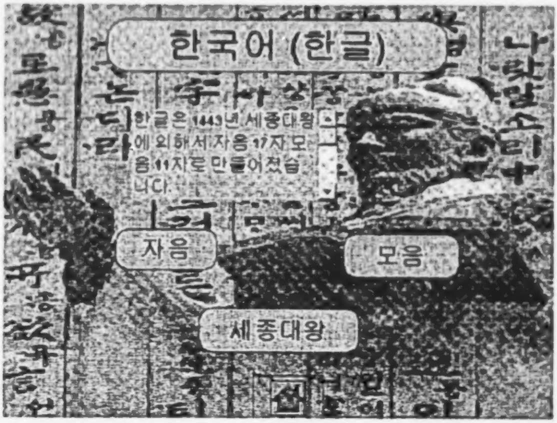
대한민국은 세계
에서 가장 아름다
운 나라 중의 하
나로서 동북아시

Figure 2. The Sample Stack of HyperStudio Cards on Korea 1



한국에는 아름다운 산들이 많이 있습니다.

Figure 3. The Sample Stack of HyperStudio Cards on Korea 2



한글은 1443년 세종대왕에 의해서 자음 17자 모음 11자로 만들어졌습니다.

Figure 4. The Sample Stack of HyperStudio Cards on Korea 3

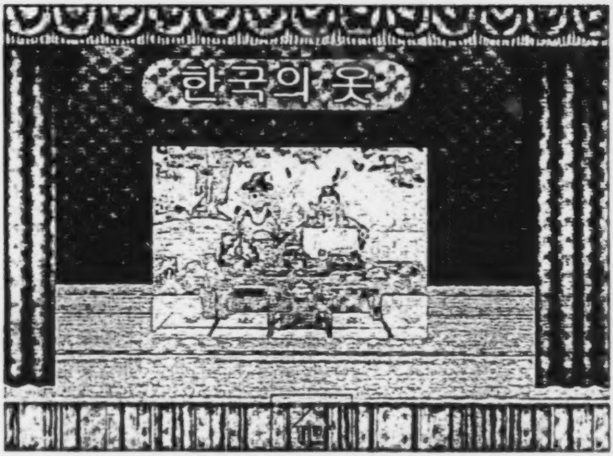


Figure 5. The Sample Stack of HyperStudio Cards on Korea 4

Conclusion

In conclusion, the HyperStudio is an ideal example of how technology can revolutionize classroom teaching. It can be used for language teaching and learning, especially Korean as a foreign language since students can learn all four skills---listening, speaking, reading and writing. What is important to note is that students will have opportunities to develop speaking skills by presenting their work orally. Furthermore, through the process of creating stacks, students will learn how to work cooperatively with peers, and how to appreciate Korean culture. By using HyperStudio, Korean language teachers will be able to integrate technology into their Korean language classrooms to make their students more motivated and interested in the target language. All Korean language teachers are encouraged to use this friendly technique in their language classrooms, which will hopefully lead to some comparative studies of two groups, one with HyperStudio and one without to validate its advantages that have been described in this paper.

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Part VI

Development of Courses and Teaching Materials

Developing a business Korean course based on a systematic approach

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I. Introduction

1.1 The importance of understanding curriculum elements

The generally accepted view regarding 'second & foreign language curriculum development' includes diagnosis of needs, formulation of objectives, material (selection of content / organization of content), teaching (selection and organization of learning experiences/ supporting teachers), and evaluation. However, in reality, the number of second or foreign language programs, which has been planned, constructed, and implemented, following the principles of the curriculum designing faithfully, may be considerably rare. Because of many external factors such as political, administrative, financial and human resources issues, developing so called 'an ideally constructed language curriculum based on the principles' (a language program in general and a certain language course in particular) may be extremely difficult to realize. This may be particularly true for Korean language programs in the US, where a majority of the programs has been small-sized, lacking the number of properly trained teachers and administrators, and vulnerable to fund availability and student enrollment.

However, I assert that the sound theoretical and practical knowledge of second / foreign language curriculum development is a crucial part of KFL (Korean as a foreign language) teacher education because facing the bitter reality, and preparing oneself as a professional KFL educator for the future are two separate things. For example, every soldier in the Army is trained to use rifles during his / her basic training: nevertheless, in fact, the majority of them get discharged from the service, without shooting his/her rifle at least once in an actual battle. In a similar manner, KFL teachers must have sound knowledge regarding the language curriculum development, so that they can be ready to apply the knowledge when the time comes. Moreover, the knowledge may provide indispensable tools to evaluate and to appreciate any existing language programs based on theoretically grounded perspectives.

1.2 The organization of the paper

The goal of this research paper is to discuss the entire process of planning, designing, and developing the course (curriculum), applying the theoretical and practical knowledge of systematic second language curriculum development, and the aspects of National Standards in the process, if applicable. In this paper, I discuss the topics as if I write an informal proposal, in which I describe each step involved in the development of a LSP (language for a specific purpose) course for Korean language. Hence, the majority of the content will be based on tentative and artificial plans.

In developing the course, I use James Dean Brown's approach as a general theoretical framework. Brown (1995) describes the following six steps as sources for curriculum development: 1) needs analysis, 2) goals / objectives, 3) testing, 4) materials, 5) teaching, and 6) evaluation.

In addition, I advocate the concept of 'learner-centered curriculum (LCC)' (Nunan, 1988) in developing a course. Rejecting so called 'a ballistic' approach to curriculum development, the LCC gives prominence to what actually happens during the course of program delivery. The LCC is characterized by a collaborative effort between teachers and learners in the process, in which learners also take part in planning, implementing and evaluating process of curriculum development. The LCC assumes that given constraints that exist in most learning contexts, teachers can't expect that learners learn everything being taught in class. Consequently, in the LCC, teachers' aims are twofold: to teach specific language skills, and to help learners develop efficient learning skills. For example, Nunan (1988) provides the following specific aims (p. 3):

1. to provide learners with efficient learning strategies
2. to assist learners identify their own preferred ways of learning
3. to develop skills needed to negotiate the curriculum
4. to encourage learners to set their own objectives
5. to encourage learners to adopt realistic goals and time frames
6. to develop learners' skills in self-evaluation.

The paper is organized in three chapters: (1) Introduction, (2) Process of curriculum development, (3) Concluding remarks. Next chapter "Process of curriculum development" represents the bulk of this paper, and it is consisted of six sections, which discuss the six steps of Brown (1995)'s framework respectively.

1.3 Targeted students

In this paper, I define the term 'curriculum' as a plan for learning. In addition, I will put special emphasis of communication skills (listening and speaking and cultural understanding) on the development of the curriculum. To my present knowledge, the biggest Korean-American community exists in Southern California regions (over 0.5 million). Fictionally, my imaginative language program will belong to a large-scale university, situated in S. California, and the targeted college students will be the second year Korean language learners, who have had the equivalent of first-year Korean with business as their majors, and who wish to prepare for possible employment in international trading industry. More specifically, I imagine that the students in this group have learned the following aspects of Korean, which are also major learning points of the first year of Korean:

1. The sound system and pronunciation of Korean
2. Reading and writing proficiency of Korean alphabet *hangul*
3. Basic Korean grammatical points that include: verbs, nouns, adjectives forms in affirmative and negative; formal and informal forms.
4. Numerals and counters for dates, time, people, cost, etc.
5. The basic concept of the Korean speech styles, and the concept of the honorific

In addition, I assume the followings:

1. The primary motivation of the majority of the students, studying Korean language, is due to the expectation of employment in trading industry.
2. Trading industry occupies one of important positions in S. California Korean community.
3. As these students' motivations are high, it is important to develop a Korean language curriculum to meet their need and demand.

The course that I aim to develop will be called 'KOR 250' hereafter.

II. Process of curriculum development

2.1 Needs analysis

2.1.1 Knowing what to analyze

According to Brown (1995), needs analysis (also called needs assessment) refers to "the activities involved in gathering information that will serve as the basis for developing a curriculum that will meet the learning needs of a particular group of students. Once the needs of the target students are identified, the results can be used in developing goals, objectives and content; they provide a means of obtaining wider input into the material content, design and implementation of a language program; and it can provide data for reviewing and evaluating an existing program" (p. 35).

As the first step of needs analysis, my teaching staff and I will identify who are involved in the process such as target group (Korean language students with business majors), audiences (e.g., KFL teaching staff & department administrators), needs analysts (e.g., faculty), and resource group (e.g., financial sponsors such as Korea Foundation, the department of East Asian Language and Culture).

Secondly, we will identify the types of needs we will focus on. According to the existing literatures (Brindley, 1984, Nunan, 1985), there are three types of needs: 1) Situation Needs (administrative, financial, pedagogic) vs. Language Needs; 2) Objective Needs (determined on the basis of clear-cut, observable data such as proficiency level of the students) vs. Subjective Needs (students' personal desire /expectation); 3) Linguistic Content (goal-oriented) vs. Learning Processes (process-oriented). Having identified and kept the types of needs in mind, we will form what kinds of general questions we will ask during the information gathering activities such as interviews, group meetings, and writing questionnaires.

2.1.2 Gathering information process

The next step is to gather the information. Techniques for data collection can be ranged on a continuum from formal to informal. Formal ways include standardized interviews and proficiency assessments, while informal ways include such things as classroom observation.

First, we will utilize any preexisting information that may be available.[1] My colleagues and I first will turn to a search of the literature on teaching business Korean with the purpose of finding information on the state of the art and on what had previously been done to teach business Korean in other Korean language programs. Moreover, we will review the contents of Korean language textbooks being used for first and second year programs for grammatical items and sentence patterns. In addition, we will examine any existing trading-related text materials in Korean language to identify any particular vocabulary, useful expressions, and cultural points. In all, students' needs that include language skills, cultural information and attitudes will be drawn from these various analysis. Based on the needs analysis, various data will be collected and classified into four main areas: airport, hotel, company, and negotiation. I limit the situations into four, considering that KOR250 will be 3-credit course.

Secondly, we will analyze the internal records, kept in the department, regarding new and past students, financial records, teacher evaluations, and so forth. Such records (systems analysis) will help us understand the trends in the Korean language program components such as Korean students enrollments, profits, students' evaluation of the physical conditions and teaching, and so forth.

Thirdly, we will interview 10 business major students (who are taking or have taken the second half of the first year Korean such as KOR102) to explore their language and personal career needs. In addition, we will interview with 15 working people in the trading industry (located in S. California) to identify needs or problems in communication skills and cultural understanding among their employers and Korean trading partners in various situations. Furthermore, we will administer survey, using a questionnaire (that will be divided into two sections, covering linguistic and cultural elements) as an attempt to ensure that our tentative goals, micro-skills, and objectives are concordant with the students' self-perceived language needs and not biased too much by the anticipation of our teaching staff, including myself. We expect to find using the questionnaires particularly helpful because questionnaires are more efficient for gathering information on a larger scale than what's being addressed in interviewing or meetings.

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[1] Here, existing information can include data sources within the Korean language program (such as files or records that may be one hand when the needs analysis begin), or external data sources (such as library resources or letters exchanged with other existing programs with similar students).

Our expected outcome will be as follows. Throughout the process, we will gain valuable information such as how high the students' motivation are to take KOR 250 (their attitudes), what kinds of things they wish and expect to learn in the class (priorities), and how the course may affect their academic and career interests (personalization). The expected results will confirm our tentative assumption that there are strong needs of learning business Korean among business major students of the fictional university (who have already taken or taking KOR 102), and the department administrative and teaching staff of the Korean language section recognize the needs, and are ready and willing to support the initiative.

In addition, we imagine that the following specific needs will be identified from the students interview and questionnaires:

(Functional / situational needs)

1. Greeting for social interaction, including welcoming and parting.
2. How to communicate information about amounts: prices (both in the US and Korean currency), taxes, sizes, distances, etc.
3. How to register at hotel in Korea / how to use transportation in downtown Seoul
4. Places names in downtown Seoul
5. Names of major business conglomerates in Korea, and hotels. Etc…

(Linguistic Needs)

1. Complex address terms / hierarchical occupational titles
2. Speech styles (particularly, formal deferential level).
3. The use of honorific expressions (formulaic expressions). Etc…

The last step of needs analysis is to evaluate the whole process (before going into next step: the formulation of language / instructional objective), in which we will be able to reconfirm every step of needs analysis process once more to see whether there were any biases or deficiencies involved.

It is important to note that needs analysis process does not stop in this stage alone, but rather it is an on-going activity that continues throughout the entire curriculum activities. In other words, although initial data collection through the needs analysis will be used mainly for planning a curriculum, ongoing data collections of different parties' needs should be continued. For example, even after the actual class of KOR250 begins, we can still observe students' both subjective and objective needs, which we can reflect them upon planning our further instructions.

For example, asking the following questions through a survey during the first week of instruction may help the instructor of KOR250 to reflect his/her students' subjective needs: (1) What learning activities do you prefer? (learning grammar rules/ pronunciation/ learning new words/ studying a textbook or course-book etc.,); (2) which skills are most important for you? (speaking/ listening/ writing/ reading); (3) what sort of groupings for group activities do you prefer? (practicing with the whole class / practicing in small groups / practicing in pairs/ studying alone, etc.,).

2.2 Goals / Instructional objectives

According to Brown (1995), the term 'curriculum goal' refers to "general statements concerning desirable and attainable program purposes and aims based on perceived language and situation needs" (p.72), while the term 'instructional objectives' refers to "specific statements that describe the particular knowledge, behaviors, and / or skills that the learners will be expected to know or perform at the end of a course or program" (p.73).

To form instructional objectives of KOR250, my staff and I will first look at sample instructional objectives of a similar business-oriented course at other Korean language programs such as BYU (Bringham Young University at Utah) Korean language program. In addition, we will conduct literature reviews to find out the essential elements to include in formal instructional objective statements. In the process, we will particularly pay attention to two types of goals (Brown, 1995): (1) cognitive (language) goal: the kind of language knowledge and skills the students will be learning in the program/ addressing the language content (product), and (2) affective goal: the goals in the program that are designed to alter or increase affective factors such as feeling, emotions, degrees of acceptance, values and biases/ addressing the processes of learning rather than the language content.

Having broken down the perceptions of the students' needs into potential objectives, and having organized them on the basis of all available information, we will then state them as clear instructional objectives. This objectives will specify what the students are expected achieve by the end of the semester. The examples of our imaginative objective are as follows:

Objectives: At the end of the semester, (with three hours a week, 45 hours in all), the students will be able to demonstrate ability in listening comprehension, speaking proficiency, and cultural knowledge as follows:

1) Listening:
    a. Ability to comprehend simple business-oriented conversation spoken in the normal native speaker's pace, on topics such as 'checking at the hotel' 'at the company' ' at the business meeting room,' etc....

2) Speaking:
    a. Ability to engage in basic social and functional business conversation on the situations mentioned above.

3) Cultural knowledge:
    a. Ability to understand and indicate reasons for general characteristics of Korean business men (trading partners) in terms of their social customs, ways of thinking, values, and physical environment.
    b. Ability to understand how socio-cultural factors such as rank, seniority, age, education, and personal background affect business-oriented Korean language use.

2.3 Testing

Compared to other curriculum theories such as that of Taba (1962), one unique part of Brown (1995)'s proposal is the inclusion of 'testing.' Brown (1995) discusses why testing is important in a language program:

- It helps us place students in a class, appropriate to their level.
- It helps us measure students' proficiency level (e.g., admission).
- It helps us understand their learning progress.
- It helps us to closely examine our perceptions of the students' needs.
- After we discover that some objectives don't need to be taught, we will have the freedom to concentrate instead on the remaining objectives or to add new objectives designed to meet more advanced needs.
- Changing the objectives due to what we learn from the tests naturally lead to rethinking our materials and teaching strategies to meet the newly perceived needs of the students.
- Whenever we need to focus on program evaluation, we have a great deal of information ready to be presented.

As foreign language teachers, we should be familiar with two families of language tests: Norm-referenced tests (NRT) and Criterion-referenced tests (CRT).

According to Brown (1995, 1996), the characteristics of NRT are as follows: First, its interpretation is relative, where a student's score is interpreted in relation to the scores of other students; secondly, it is used to measure general language abilities or proficiency, and the purpose of testing is to spread students out along a continuum of abilities (or proficiency); thirdly, its score is normally distributed around a mean, and often the test has relatively few subtests with a wide variety of different test question contents; and fourthly, students have little or no idea what content to expect in questions. Proficiency and placement tests are two examples of NRTs.

On the other hands, the characteristics of CRT are as follows (Brown, 1995, 1996): First, its interpretation is absolute, and its purpose is to measure specific well-defined (e.g., objective-based) language points; secondly, it aims to assess the amount of material known, or learned by each student (where if all students know all the material, they should all be able to score 100%); and thirdly, it is often made of series of short, well-defined subtests with fairly similar questions in each, and students will know exactly what content to expect in test questions. Achievement and diagnostic tests are two examples of CRT.

For our KOR250 project, we will develop three types of tests: a placement test, and a diagnosis test, and an achievement test. Among the students who will register for KOR250, we expect that about 40% will be heritage students, who will be placed in the second year level of Korean. Consequently, in order to find out those students' appropriate proficiency level, we will develop a placement test (NRT), which will be administered at the beginning of semester. In addition, to find out whether the course objectives are in the process of attaining, we will also develop a diagnostic test (CRT), which will be administered in the middle of course. Moreover, in order to determine the degree of learning vis-à-vis course objectives, we will also develop an achievement test (CRT).[2]

2.4 Material

Having identified the needs, formulated instructional objectives, and prepared essential tools for testing, now my staff and I are ready to begin 'material development.' Materials for KOR 250 can be defined as anything, which is used by a KFL teacher or learners to facilitate the learning of business-Korean language. Hence, anything that is deliberately used to increase the KFL learners' knowledge and / or experience of business Korean language can be materials such as videos, CD-ROMs, newspapers, food packages, photographs, dictionaries, grammar books, and workbooks. However, for ease of exposition in this paper, let us focus our attention on the development of the KOR250 textbook.

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[2] The test results will be a part of our product-oriented evaluation approach.

2.4.1 What to remember before material writing

Before the actual development of the material begins, I assume that I already have held regular staff meetings to discuss what current studies regarding material development have contributed to our understanding of the process. For instance, Tomlinson (1998)'s *Materials Development in Language Teaching* has offered important suggestions for the material development.[3]

In the staff meetings, we will discuss the importance of using authentic data as much as possible in the process of material development (particularly during data gathering stage). The agendas that we will discuss and recognize are as follows:

First, we will recognize that in the past, textbooks have been typically based on (1) idealized data about the target language; (2) what and how their authors think the learners should use the target language; (3) author's intuitions / abstract awareness about how the target language should be used; and (4) information from reference books (planned discourse) rather than actual data (unplanned discourse). Moreover, we will acknowledge that grammar of spoken language differs from that of written language because: (1) the contextual factors (degree of intimacy and of shared experience among the interlocutors) are crucial determinants of the lexis and the structures used in discourse; and; (2) all languages are purposeful, subjective, attitudinal, and strategic. Hence, we will agree upon an idea that materials should be designed to facilitate systematic progress at the same time to provide the learners with encounters with the reality of target language use (communicative / meaningful activities, using authentic language).

Secondly, we will agree upon an idea that different types of learners and different preferred styles of learning should be catered for in language materials. For example, there are analytic, experiential, visual, auditory, and kinesthetic learners. However, most published materials are designed for the favor of analytic learners.

Thirdly, we will familiarize ourselves with the values of: (1) the potential value of experiential learning, (2) peripheral learning, (3) engaging the senses and emotions in the learning process, (4) whole person approaches, (5) catering for different learning styles, and (6) offering responsibility and choice to learners.

Fourthly, we will highlight an idea that materials should be designed in a way that it can also foster independent learning by raising the consciousness of the learners and making them more aware of the learning process.

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[3] This book, Tomlinson, B. (Ed.).(1998). *Materials Development in Language Teaching.* (Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press) is consisted of 15 original chapters on current issues in material development written by well-known contributors to the field of applied linguistics, and TEFL. The main aim of the book is to provide information, ideas and stimulus which will facilitate the application of current thinking and research to the practical realities of developing and exploiting classroom materials.

Fifthly, we will agree that materials should be suggestive rather than definitive, so that it may act as a model for KFL teachers to develop their own variations, and materials should also reflect the socio-cultural context within which they will be used.

Sixthly, we will also discuss what SLA findings has offered to us in relation to material development such as the following (Tomlinson, 1998):

1) Materials should help learners to feel at ease
2) Materials should help learners to develop confidence
3) What is being taught should be perceived by learners as relevant and useful
4) Materials should require and facilitate learner self-investment
5) Learners must be ready to acquire the points being taught
6) The learners' attention should be drawn to linguistic features of the input
7) Materials should provide the learners with opportunities to use the target language to achieve communicative purpose
8) Materials should take into account that the positive effects of instruction are usually delayed
9) Materials should take into account that learners differ in learning styles
10) Materials should take into account that learners differ in affective attitudes
11) Materials should permit a silent period at the beginning of instruction
12) Materials should maximize learning potential by encouraging intellectual, aesthetic and emotional involvement which stimulates both right and left brain activities
13) Materials should not rely too much on controlled practice
14) Materials should provide opportunities for outcome feedback

In addition, we will agree upon the following ideas (Tomlinson, 1998):

1) The dynamic nature of material development: it needs to be constantly evaluated, and revised for material should keep changing!
2) Materials should meet the needs of multiple parties: teachers, learners, publishers, and sponsors!
3) Teaching principles are subjective and diverse. The material should be based on agreed and justifiable principles followed by procedural compromises to satisfy different parties and to cater for different learner styles and expectations.

Seventhly, we will identify the following specific issues in the textbook development process:

1) What skills should the students possess by the end of the study?
2) What vocabulary is functional for particular business-transaction situation?
3) What grammatical points and structures (expressions) are useful?
4) What cultural elements should be relevant?
5) What type of dialogues should be presented as models?
6) What fictional situation should be included for application activities?

Moreover, we will recognize the need and value of collaborative efforts with various relevant professions such as fellow teachers of other languages, the department administrators, language learners, teacher-trainers, researchers, publishers, and textbook writers, believing that such collaboration will help us better use, adapt and develop the text in effective ways.

2.4.2 Process of material writing

With the results of the needs assessment, clear instructional objectives, and the relevant knowledge regarding material development gained through occasional staff workshops, now my teaching staff and I will be ready for 'material writing.'

As a director, I have three options for the textbook that is to adopt, adapt, or develop one. However, considering that KOR250 is a KSP (Korean for specific purpose) course, we will expect that there will not be any satisfactory existing text to adopt or adapt. Therefore, I will decide to develop one with my teaching staff. First, for planning content, we will examine any previously existing Korean-business oriented text materials, and the existing Korean language textbooks, used in the second year program in our department for grammatical items, vocabulary, and cultural information.

Secondly, we will incorporate the results of needs analysis regarding what potential students (such as those business major students of KOR102, who will be the primary target learners of KOR250) may wish or expect to learn in the course.

Thirdly, we will interview those people who are currently involved in the US-Korea trading industry to find out the typical verbal behaviors of trading industry. Of course, considering the fact that KOR250 is the second year course, only the most basic but essential words, expressions and grammatical points will be noticed, excluding sophisticated jargons or idiomatized expressions.

Once the content for the course has been specified, the next step is to sequence them. I will consider the following factors in sequencing the contents

(Nunan, 1988): (1) learner factors such as motivation, confidence, prior learning experience, learning pace, observed ability in language skills, cultural awareness, and linguistic knowledge; (2) task factors such as relevance, complexity, amount of context provided prior to task, processibility of language of the task, amount of help available to the learner, degree of grammatical accuracy/ contextual appropriacy, and time available; (3) text factors such as size and density of text, presentational format of text, contextual clues, and content of text.

2.4.3 Community as a resource

Again, it is crucial to remember that material development is also an on-going curriculum activity that even if the textbook or certain teaching materials are produced, teachers should always be ready to develop any supplementary materials whenever they are necessary, and these additional materials should always be designed to suit learners' needs such as their expectations, and learning styles preferences.

According to Nunan (1988), one of key aims of the learner-centered curriculum is to help learners use the target language for communicative purpose outside the classroom. Here, I suggest that the teachers should use the community (e.g., Korean town & Korean-American business community in S. California) as a resource, encouraging students to make links between classroom learning and outside language use. This idea is closely related to the value of "community" of 5 C's of National Standard (Standards for foreign language learning: Preparing for the 21st century, 1996, p.9).[4]

> 5.1. Students use the language both within and beyond the school setting.
> 5.2. Students show evidence of becoming life-long learners by using the language for personal enjoyment and enrichment."

One obvious way is to encourage students to be involved in the Korean community. For example, KFL teachers can take their students on excursions (e.g., Korean-American trading firms), bringing in guest speakers from the trading industry and so on. Moreover, creating another special-Korean language course such as an internship course like Japanese 495 of the University of Hawaii at Manoa will be another great way of enhancing the students' academic and career interests through community learning.[5]

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[4] The standards define five goals for foreign language learning, i.e., Communication, Cultures, Connections, Comparisons, and Communities, which all should serve as guides for language educators when developing classroom activities for their students.

2.5 Teaching

Brown (1995) discusses four ways that a language program, through its curriculum, can directly assist teachers to do their primary job: teaching.[6] However, since my task is more narrowly defined that is to develop a special Korean language course, I will focus on discussing the teaching methods and learning activities, involved in KOR250.

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[5] JPN495 "Internship" has been designed to help Japanese language students to practice Japanese honorifics in business setting through internship at certain business sectors such as hotels and restaurants. The class is held every other week for brief meeting with a supervising teacher, where the students report to the teacher what they have experienced and learned through internship at their respective working places.

[6]
1) Orienting and involving teachers in the curriculum
    a) Initial information; (1) Orientation meeting (2) Teacher's guide (3) Reference document (such as copies of need analysis documents / first day handout)
    b) Types of information teachers need : (1) Context of the program (2) Learners (3) Teachers (4) Administrative process (5) The types of instruction (types / how best to implement them)
2) Supporting teachers
    a) Helping teachers know: Teacher's and students' place in the curriculum
        - Teacher's place: (1) need analyst (2) provider of student input (3) motivator (4) organizer and controller of student behavior (5) demonstrator of accurate language production (6) material developer (7) counselor and friend (8) service provider
        - Students' place: (1) active participant (2) co-partner (3) passive recipient (4) client etc.,
    b) Providing a framework of support
        - Administrative support (dealing with politics) : to ensure that the teachers have all the resources they need in order to do their jobs
        - Curricular support: provides the teachers with help in the form of information, tests, materials, ideas, and feedback when they need it and help them to work together with colleagues so that they can all benefit from their combined energies.
3) Monitoring teachers
    a) What is good teaching: (1) consistent instruction (2) relevant instruction (3) efficient instruction
    b) Observation and feedback from it (1) Administrator observation (2) Peer observation. (3) Self-observation.
    c) Students' evaluation: (1) Evaluation forms (2) Interviews (3) Student representative meetings

The teaching philosophy of a program director or a curriculum developer is important for it will affect of his / her view regarding a language curriculum. Needless to say, that of each teacher is also vital for it will influence his/her teaching. My teaching philosophy is based on social constructivist's point of view (William, M., & Burden, R. 1997), where the elements of teacher, learners, and tasks interact each other within a contextual boundary. In addition, I advocate eclectivists' teaching approach, where both theoretical and practical elements of teaching activities (approaches, syllabuses, techniques and practice) should be implemented flexibly, depending on various needs of learners, teachers, and contexts.

In addition, I support Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) to teach Korean language. CLT is characterized by the followings (Nunan, 1991):

(1) An emphasis on learning business Korean to communicate through interaction in Korean language.
(2) The introduction of authentic texts as much as possible into the learning business Korean situations.
(3) The provision of opportunities for learners to focus, not only on the language but also on the learning process itself.
(4) An enhancement of the learners' own personal experiences as important contributing elements to classroom learning.
(5) An attempt to link classroom language learning with language activation outside the classroom.

Following the five phases of instructional process of Hijirida (1980), the content of the materials will be rearranged into five phases: (1) presentation phase, (2) explanation phase, (3) drill phase, (4) application phase, and (5) evaluation phase. Following the descriptions, offered by Hijirida (1980), the major objectives of each phase will be as follows:

1) Presentation: to assist the students to associate sound and meaning in the given situation (dialogues), which is visually presented either through slides or real objects, etc.

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4) Revitalizing teachers
    a) Changing various sets of teachers' attitudes (toward work, / colleagues)
    b) Growing as a teacher (through attending conferences, / workshops)
    c) Teachers getting involved in systematic curriculum development.

2) Explanation: to clarify the patterns or structures of the lesson. Depending upon the grammatical points of each lesson, the approach may be either inductive or deductive.
3) Drill: to provide sufficient exercise or drilling, enough to elicit quick responses.
4) Application phase: to provide opportunities for the students to use freely what he or she has learned in a real-life or a simulated situations.
5) Evaluation: to evaluate how well the teacher has taught and how well the students have learned.

2.6 Evaluation

2.6.1. Definition and scope of evaluation

Brown (1995) defines evaluation as "the systematic collection and analysis of all relevant information necessary to promote the improvement of the curriculum and to assess its effectiveness within the context of the particular institutions involved" (p. 24). In addition, the importance of evaluation is so great that Brown (1995) asserts, "In the absence of evaluation, the elements lack cohesion: if left in isolation, any one element may become pointless. In short, the heart of the systematic approach to language curriculum design is evaluation: the part of the model that includes, connects, and gives meaning to all the other elements" (p.217).

It must be noted that evaluation is an on-going process of information gathering, analysis, and synthesis, that occurs every stage of the curriculum development. In general, there are two types of approach: product-oriented approach vs. process-oriented approach. Product-oriented approach (very often using quantitative data) is characterized by experimental or quasi-experimental designs, statistical analysis, while process-oriented approach (very often using naturalistic and/or qualitative data) can be implemented in the forms of observation, and interview.

2.6.2 Applying National Standards' 5Cs in the evaluation process

I suggest that KFL teachers should be familiar with National Standards, which should be considered in evaluating a class. The Standards for Foreign Language Learning was developed and published in 1996 by teachers of foreign languages (kindergarten through college levels) under the direction of four US foreign language teachers organizations. The purpose was to standardize the content and improve the quality of foreign language education in the US. The standards define five goals for foreign language learning: Communication, Cultures, Connections, Comparisons, and Communities, which are known as the 5 C goals. Each goal contains 2 to 3 content standards that describe the knowledge and abilities that foreign language students are expected to learn. I suggest that the five C goals should also serve as framework for teachers to develop and to evaluate classroom activities for their students (see the appendix "A sample learning scenario" for detail).

Moreover, the teachers should help students be consciously aware of the goals, so that the students can also reflect their personal learning objectives and opinions regarding the content of instruction and the instructional objectives on the standards. For example, even after the instruction begins, teachers should make students consciously aware of objectives in class. According to Nunan (1988), specifying course objectives to students may evoke following positive benefits:

- Learners come to have a more realistic idea of what can be achieved in a given course.
- Learning comes to be seen as the gradual accretion of achievable goals.
- Students develop greater sensitivity to their role as language learners and their rather vague notions of what it is to be a learner become much sharper
- Self-evaluation becomes more feasible
- Classroom activities can be seen to relate to learners' real-life needs.
- The development of skills can be seen as a gradual rather than an all-or-nothing process. (p.61).

2.6.3 Evaluating 'KOR250'

As mentioned, evaluation should be applicable to each step of the process. First, using the original results of needs analysis, we will evaluate how accurate and effective our needs analysis data turn out to be in terms of providing useful information for course planning and data on subjective and objective needs. In addition, using the results of pre-test (diagnostic test) and post-test (achievement test), we will evaluate which of the original students needs turn out to be most efficiently learned, and which are superfluous.

Secondly, using a diagnostic test in the middle of the semester, we will find out which instructional objectives turn out to be needed by the students and which did they already know. In addition, at the end of the semester, using evaluation interviews or questionnaire forms, we will find out how teachers', students', and administrator's attitudes about the usefulness of the objectives have changed throughout the semester, by comparing those originally formulated with those reported at the end of the semester. Thirdly, we will evaluate the reliability and validity of the tests (e.g., diagnosis tests and achievement test), planned and implemented during the semester.

Fourthly, we will evaluate how effective our KOR250 textbook and workbook have been at meeting the needs of the students and teachers as expressed in the objectives. In the process, we will consider the following questions in minds:

(1) Does the content of the book reflect the needs of students and teachers well? (2) Is the content appropriately sequenced? In addition, using evaluation interviews (with staff and students), and through staff meeting, we will discuss how students and teachers have felt about the usefulness of the teaching materials throughout the semester. For the student evaluation forms, the students will be asked to write their personal reactions regarding five aspects of the textbook: (1) choice of vocabulary, (2) grammatical points, (3) situational presentation, (4) cultural knowledge, and (5) amount of coverage. Based on the evaluation data, we will discuss how the materials can be reorganized to meet the needs of the different parties better.

Fifthly, we will evaluate the effectiveness of teaching methodology through classroom observations by fellow teaching staff during the semester, and by examining the results of students' evaluation at the end of the semester. Furthermore, through interviews and meeting with students and teachers, we will find out different parties' attitudes and feelings about the usefulness of the teaching approach as originally planned and delivered. Moreover, we will also conduct the pre-test and post-test to determine how much learning takes place within a semester in the areas of listening & speaking ability and cultural knowledge.

III. Concluding remarks

"Involving teachers in systematic curriculum development may be the single best way to keep their professionalism vital and their interest in teaching alive" (Brown, 1995, p. 206).

In this paper, I have attempted to discuss the entire process of planning, designing, and developing KOR250, applying the theoretical and practical knowledge of the systematic second language curriculum development of Brown (1995), supporting the ideas of the learner-centered teaching.

One may argue that developing a Korean language course based on the aforementioned principled approaches may be extremely difficult in reality because of numerous external factors that a Korean language program in the US college settings may encounter such as the issues related to political, financial, administrative and human resources. However, as mentioned in Introduction, I assert that facing a bitter reality and equipping oneself with the appropriate knowledge are two separate things.

Surely, curriculum activities such as administrating a Korean language program, developing teaching materials, implementing various types of tests, and evaluating the effectiveness of a class or a language program are also all-important tasks of a KFL education specialist. Whether you are a simple Korean instructor, a section head, or a Korean language program coordinator, the firm knowledge regarding 'the second or foreign language curriculum development' is an indispensable part of what the specialist must know and be familiar with. I insist that KFL teachers must hold firm understanding of the language curriculum elements: needs analysis, academic goal and instructional objectives, testing (NRT and CRT), material development (whether to adapt, adept or to develop materials), and evaluation (process and product-oriented) process.

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APPENDIX

A sample Learning Scenario
(to evaluate 'teaching' based on National Standards)

Title: Self-Introduction, using a business caard (*myong'am*)
Level: Intermediate level college business Korean (KOR250)
Number of students in class: 12
Material: Handout, videos, and the samples of *myong'am* (Korean business-cards)

Targeted Standards:

1.1 Interpersonal Communication
2.1 Practices of Culture
2.2 Products of Culture
4.1 Language Comparisons
4.2 Cultural Comparisons

The instructional objective is learn how to do self-introduction in Korean for business-oriented setting, using *myong'am* (business-cards), and to discuss any similarities and differences between the self-introduction custom in business-oriented setting of Korean and that of American English.

In the beginning of the class, the teacher brings several types of *myong'am*, and explains how Korean businessmen use the name-cards in their business-oriented activities. Then, the teacher distributes blank small piece of papers, and ask the students to design a *myong'am* for him/herself.

Then, the students watch the English version video that shows how American businessmen in general introduce themselves when they are engaged in business transactions. The teacher encourages them to observe the non-verbal behaviors such as gestures, the distance between the two interlocutors in the scene, the order of turn-taking, eye contact, and so on. Next the teacher shows a Korean version. After viewing the two videos, the teacher asks the students to discuss what similarities and differences they noticed, comparing the styles of Korean and that of English. Through the comparisons, the students realize the nature of language and culture. Lastly, the students practice 'self-introduction' in Korean, using *myong'am*.

Reflection
1.1 The students use Korean to discuss their thoughts and feelings about the issues, introduced in the handout.

2.1 The students practice self-introduction in Korean, using *myong'am*

2.2 The students understand how and why Korean-businessmen use *myong'am*, and the function of *myong'am*.

4.1 The students observe both American and Korean self-introduction in the video, and compare the differences in verbal and nonverbal clues.

4.2 The students discuss the function of *myong'am* in Korean business culture, and the business cards in America.

Two New Publications for Intermediate Level Korean

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Many Korean language instructors have identified the lack of good textbooks as one of the source of difficulties in Korean language education in the university context. This was particularly true in the case of non-beginning level courses. The recent publication of Modern Korean: An Intermediate Reader by Prof. Nam-Kil Kim of USC and Integrated Korean Intermediate I by Young-mee Cho et al with its accompanying Workbook by Carol Schultz provide us with two new textbooks for the intermediate level. If we add the soon-to-be published College Korean II authored by my colleague Clare You and Eun-su Cho, we will have the luxury of three choices.

To an instructor in search of new materials and new methodologies, these publications are welcome additions to the slowly growing library of Korean language textbooks. The role of textbooks cannot be underestimated as they guide and lead the curriculum. This is why we need to look at each textbook carefully and determine its relative merit and usefulness vis-a-vis the goals and objectives of our courses. This paper is a review of these two books: Modern Korean: Intermediate Reader (MK) and Klear Textbook Integrated Korean Intermediate 1 (IK).

Modern Korean: Intermediate Reader (MK)

MK contains 24 lessons of cultural topics to be covered in two semesters. As the author stated in the preface, his overriding concern was to introduce topics relating to culture as well as to the language. Both the historical/traditional topics and contemporary topics are well represented. Almost all of the quintessential traditional cultural topics such as the History of Korea, the Mythology of Dangun, King Sejong, and other historical personalities such as Shin Saimdang, the Mother of Han Seokbong, the calligrapher. On the side of modern topics, they include Urban Life, the City of Seoul, Valentine Day and White Day, Advice to the Young, and most notably the writer Lee Gwang-soo. All topics are interesting and a student will get a fairly good sense of Korean culture through reading this text.
(Yonsei Hangugo Dokbon 3, 4 and Hangugo II of Seoul National University share a similar cultural content.)

Each lesson is composed of a main text, one or more short dialogues, usage of new words, structural patterns, substitution drills, grammar drills, exercises, and a list of vocabulary. From Lesson 13 (to be covered in the second semester of a two-semester course), ten to fifteen Sino-Korean characters are introduced. The book also contains an index to patterns, and a Korean to English and English to Korean glossary at the end.

Most of the main texts are succinctly written in simple and clear language giving interesting information on various aspects Korean culture. The dialogues that follow illustrate what conversation might take place in the context of the reading. Usage of New Words gives additional examples of the words used in sentences. Structural Patterns give the grammar and there are about 200 of them. The English explanations tend to get technical in their terminology. e.g. adnominals, conjunctives, sentential subject's negative obligation or permission (p. 142, -eo/-aseoneun an dwenda 'must not...' 'should not...')

Although some very important patterns such as [illegible]aenyahamyon ...gi ttaemunida. and ...geos-i...geos-ida. are properly introduced, passive constructions and causative constructions are conspicuously left out. When the occasion to introduce such a pattern -eo/-a jida 'to be ..." presented itself (p. 20 Lesson 2, pattern #3), it was skirted into an introduction of a single verb and there was no mention of the productive process of passivization.

The same is true of the causative constructions. Although the marker (particle) -torok was introduced three times for its various uses, the important use of the particle in the construction of causative sentences was never mentioned. A causative construction is a sentence of the type that "someone(s) causes/has/makes/forces/orders... someone to do something". (p. 181 L14, #4.)

In the Structural Patterns, it is not specified in the heading whether the pattern is to be used with a noun/noun phrase or a verb (root or stem). Some of the explanations include this information but many don't. For an intermediate-level student, it is difficult to distinguish even the noun topic marker -neun/eun from verbal modifier form –neun, let alone the noun marker "-(eu)ro" and the verb (intentional) suffix "-(eu)reo" or the verb modifier form "-(eu)l" from the direct object noun marker "-eul/reul".

When there are phonologically alternating forms (as shown in parentheses in the preceding paragraph), not all of the forms are given (in the case of -eoss/ass/ss, -ass is never given) and even when they are, they are stated in an inconsistent manner (e.g. pp 20 and 22, -(eu)ro yogyojida and -euro ...eul teulda which should have been -(eu)ro ...eul/reul teulda, and there are many more examples like this. e.g. L13, p181 #3). Such inconsistencies coupled with incomplete information are not only confusing but also inaccurate and undermines the integrity of the book.

The bulk of the text is devoted to exercises beginning with the substitution and grammar drills. The substitution drills are transformational exercises changing one type of sentence into a different sentence using different grammatical patterns. They are to reinforce the sentence patterns introduced in the Patterns. It is a departure from the traditional pattern practices found in many other texts. (Myungdo textbooks) However, many of these changes also bring changes in the meaning and students need to be made aware how the meaning shifts through such pattern changes.

Grammar Drills are mostly for the practice or review of verb inflections and morphological changes in word derivations. The drills seem more like trick questions as so many of them are loaded with irregularities and they occur in isolation. This is probably the most challenging and tedious part for the students and they will require much supervision.

In the Exercises proper, there are comprehension questions on the main text. These are followed by a set of translation exercises with cues given for a specific pattern to be used. Although the value of translation exercises in language pedagogy has been questionable for some time, they are a prominent part of the exercises in this book. One of the positive things about translation exercises is to require the students to use specific features of the language. Although emphasis seems to be in the practice of patterns, the translation questions never seem to require the use of new words introduced in the main text. Therefore the many wonderful new words that appear in the text and are amply illustrated in the Usage of New Words receive no reinforcement. The result is that there is no difference in the level of vocabulary from the early lessons to the later lessons. e.g. Chelsoo studied hard in order to pass the exam. (p. 11) Susan finished her homework in just ten minutes. (L. 24 p. 322)

The exercise of completing a four-line dialogue and giving a short narrative story or a speech are all good language practices based on examples and models. Role-playing exercises and the writing exercises complete the exercises. These exercises are the most innovative and the best part of the exercises. However, all instructions are given using A and B, instead of real names, as the two participants and some of the instructions are indeed confusing (p. 120 #5). Some role-playing exercises seem easily adaptable as small group discussions or skits.

From Lesson 13, about ten to fifteen Sino-Korean (hanja) characters are introduced. The author admits that the Sino-Korean characters are introduced simply to familiarize the students with them and the selection of characters was short of random (p. ix). He further leaves it up to the instructor whether to teach the Sino-Korean characters or not. The introduction of Sino-Korean characters at the intermediate level needs general discussion. If indeed the Sino-Korean characters are to be taught, the selection and number need to be discussed. The rationale to teach Sino-Korean characters needs to be based on functional considerations. It is also important that the characters be introduced as parts of words rather than isolated characters.

It is interesting to note that there is some tendency toward sexism with numerous references to females being "pretty" or failing at things e.g. Young-hee who missed the bus took a taxi cab (p. 58), Sumi wants to get married sooner (p. 59), Sumi is still pretty (p. 59), She always wears short pants regardless of the weather (p. 65), No matter how pretty Young-hee may be, I will not marry her (p. 73), One becomes pretty if one falls in love (p. 156), Only male students went on the trip together (p. 158), As for talkativeness, she is second to none (p. 201), She is pretty but not kind (p. 225).

The two books differ markedly in grammatical structure. While MK introduces about 200 patterns including some very useful patterns such as waenyahamyeon ...gi ttaemunida and ...neun geosis ...neun geosida, IK introduces patterns of more basic structure.

Integrated Korean Intermediate 1

IK contains 7 lessons consisting mostly of culturally neutral topics such as Weather and Seasons, Clothing and Fashion, Travel, At the Post Office, Boarding House, Public Transportation, and At the Market. In this book, Korean culture is introduced as a subsection of each lesson under the title "Culture". An appendix containing Grammar Index, Korean-English and English-Korean Glossaries is at the end of the book.

Each lesson contains about two to three small topics written in English. The topics are: the four seasons, the lunar calendar, the folk village, the culture of uniformity and formalism, food courts at Dept. stores, part-time jobs for college students, Gyeongju and the Silla Dynasty, Cultural Differences between the West and Korea, Hyodo, Banking, Boarding House, Banking, Public Bathhouses, the Korean Underfloor Heating System, Dialects of Korean, Taxis, Subways, Hiking, Open Markets, and Bargaining. Excepting the topic of Gyeongjoo and the Silla Dynasty, almost all of the cultural information is about the modern life of Korea. The Culture topics are not necessarily related to the topics of the lessons.

Some cultural notes have a negative tone such as Culture of uniformity and formalism and many culture topics relate to consumerism and money. Looking at these topics, one cannot help but to wonder how cultural topics should be selected. What was the guiding principle in choosing such topics?

Each lesson is about 35 to 40 pages long and is composed of about seven different sub-sections. They are as follows:

1. Conversation: Conversation 1
   Conversation 2
   Narration
   Comprehension questions for dialogues and narration
2. New Words and Expressions (in categories of Nouns, Proper Nouns, Verbs, Adjectives, etc.)
   Vocabulary by theme (Weather, Travel, Service, Transportation, etc.)
3. Notes on New Words and Expressions (Conversation 1, Conversation 2, Narration)
4. Culture
5. Grammar
6. Task/Function
7. English Translation of Conversation and Narration

Each Lesson begins with a Conversation in which two dialogues are introduced. This is followed by a short passage called Narration and then comprehension questions pertaining to the two conversations and the narration.

The new words are introduced twice: once arranged in grammatical categories of nouns, verbs, adjectives, etc. and again in thematic arrangement. Compared to the traditional way of listing words in the order of their appearance in the text or in alphabetical order, this is a new approach. I wonder why though that the same words had to be listed twice in succession without any specific reason.

The introduction of new words and expressions is further elaborated with additional examples of their usage in Notes on New Words and Expressions.

In the grammar notes, there are also practice questions after each grammatical explanation. The grammar explanations themselves tend to be short and simple but each grammar point also has additional dialogue and exercises. This makes the grammar notes not only long but also confusing and diffuse. The level of sentence patterns in this text seems more basic than advanced.

This book uses Task/Function in place of the traditional word exercise. The visuals (pictures) in this book do not serve the book well. First of all, many drawings are not clear as to what they represent. The use of pictures is to provide a visual cue to prompt the linguistic response (or utterance) from the students without having to resort to another language thereby avoiding the necessity to translate (i.e. English to Korean in this case). I also wonder how useful simple visuals are for intermediate level students, as visuals have limitations of their own.

If this book is intended to be taught in a semester (of 16 weeks), each lesson is to be covered in two weeks. I cannot imagine dwelling on a topic like weather or post-office for two weeks. Each lesson is very long and unwieldy, and resembles an entry in an encyclopedia. Anything in excess is really not as desirable as something left underdone.

With so much apparent effort and with such an abundance of resources, I keep wondering why this book does not seem to do justice to its title. Perhaps the old adage "Too many cooks spoil the soup" applies here. There is no identifiable pedagogical vision or focus that guides this book. I would be curious to know what the classroom response is or has been to this book.

Concluding remarks

Although both MK and IK are intended to be used for an intermediate level Korean course, they offer very different linguistic and cultural contents. MK offers a collection of culturally interesting readings and language suitable for more sophisticated intermediate or advanced students, while IK offers a more controlled and limited language structure for low intermediate students. If your need is instruction in oral language at the low intermediate level, IK would probably fill the need. If, however, you would like to introduce your students to more authentic and culturally stimulating Korean text, MK would be the better choice. But we should never lose sight of the fact that our curriculum should not be dictated by a textbook but rather the textbook should serve as a tool for the curriculum. There is no perfect textbook for all of us.

Part VII

Sociolinguistics and Language Policy Issues

Language Shift in Bilingual Students:
A Sociolinguistic Survey of Korean-American College Students

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Abstract

One of the phenomena exhibited by immigrants to the United States is that of language shift as they develop bilingualism. As immigrant children get more accustomed to the American way of life, they tend to use less of their first language, which for many immigrants gives them their ethnic identity. The issue which has interested many sociolinguists concerning immigrant children is examining those variables that may influence language shift in bilinguals. Given the same accessability, what are some factors that contribute to the speaker's preference for one language over the other? To this endeavor, a questionnaire based on Aguirre's survey (1978) was distributed to 43 randomly selected Korean-American students at the University of California, Irvine to examine their language choice and attitude. The results of the questionnaire was interpreted in light of Fishman's domain analysis where such factors as topic, interlocutor, and place were found to have had varying degrees of influence on the bilingual's language choice. In addition, audience design proposed by Bell was also examined. The results of this study indicate that despite its strong correlation, domain analysis and audience design are insufficient to completely account for the bilingual's language choice; the underlying factors that are at the root of the bilingual's language choice seem to go beyond those ostensible factors. Thus, the results of this study seem to suggest that in addition to domain analysis and audience design, it is the bilingual's language attitude (i.e. how they view the status of their two languages) that strongly influenced their language choice.

Background

According to the 2000 U.S. Census, there were approximately a million Koreans and Korean-Americans living in the United States of which approximately 40% reside in California. From 1970 to 1990, Koreans were one of the fastest growing ethnic populations in the United States with an average population growth of 140% per decade. The California State Department of Education (1992) reported over 36,000 limited and fluent English-proficient Korean students in California's public schools.

Many Koreans immigrate to the United States motivated by their desire for their children "to obtain a high quality education which is the single most important contributor to their children's future success" (California State Department of Education, 1992). This is largely due to the Confucian philosophy rooted in the Korean culture; Confucianism teaches 'zeal for learning' and encourages education (H. Kim, 1980). In Korea, however, opportunity for higher education is restricted due to fierce competition among high school graduates to enter elite colleges. Parents with young children often come to the United States to extend their educational interest in a new country where opportunity for college education is significantly greater. Holding on steadfastly to their educational aspiration for the children, Korean-American parents tend to have very high expectations for their children to succeed in education.

To realize their objectives, Korean immigrant parents often sacrifice themselves by spending many hours a day in a predominantly blue-color labor market despite having previously held middle to upper middle socioeconomic status in their home country. This may be due to several reasons: language problem, unfamiliarity with the American way of life, and a lack of a solid socioeconomic base in the U.S. (Choy, 1979; Hurh and Kim, 1984). Thus the parents' struggle to survive in the U.S. stems from their desire for their children to succeed--sending their children to top colleges even at the expense of 'debt' to pay for expenses related to education (California State Department of Education, 1992). Just as Cheng described in his book Assessing Asian Language Performance: "they try to excel in school in order to win the approval of their parents" (1987). However, many face the reality of a language barrier due to limited English proficiency. In order to overcome their language barrier, Korean students often attend church and participate in after-school programs to improve their English. Church occupies an important and unique place among Korean immigrants because it serves as "a means of exchanging information and practical help" and there they obtain information about opportunities in "employment, housing, and schooling between oldtimers and newcomers" (Kim, 1988).

Contrary to high expectations, there are many children who do not succeed in school, including those who came to the U.S. before puberty. These students often have lost their language (L1) and cultural identity due to limited exposure to Korean language and culture in and out of the home. While B. Kim's study (1980) indicated that 99.7% of the Koreans desired that their children learn and use Korean, immigrant children seem to prefer speaking English between and among friends as soon as they develop some proficiency in the new language.

Kim (1988) reported an interesting finding; almost 60% of the Korean parents surveyed in Los Angeles wanted their children to use only English at home. In a more recent study by Shin and Kim (1998), they found that 95% of the Korean American parents surveyed supported the maintenance of the first language (Korean). Obviously, the Korean parents themselves are in the pit of dilemma; on the one hand, they want their children to keep their identity as a Korean by speaking fluent Korean.

On the other hand, they want their children to assimilate to the mainstream society by speaking fluent English so that they will not follow their parents' footsteps to compromise in a low-paid, blue-color job. This ambivalent attitude of parents inevitably influences their children's language attitude.

Rubin (1970) also found that while school, legal, and business affairs were usually discussed in Spanish in Paraguay, more personal matters were discussed in Guarani, their native language. Hoffman, however, reported that for in-depth discussions concerning school, English was found more appropriate than Spanish by students and parents among Puerto Rican bilinguals in Greater New York City Area (1971). Similarly, Grosjean cited one French-English bilingual's experience where she felt more comfortable using English for her professional activities since she received her job-related education in English, whereas she felt comfortable using her native language, French, everywhere else (1982). Thus, different topics elicit different languages depending on which language is associated with that particular conversation topic. In general, topics regarding education and work seem to be more associated with English (in the case of Spanish-English bilinguals in the United States) whereas more personal/intimate topics seem to-correlate with their native language (Greenfield, 1972).

In her study on Paraguay bilinguals, Rubin found that although both interlocutors and topics were important factors in language choice, location played a more significant role in determining their language choice. For instance, when asked which language they would use out in the country, respondents in Luque overwhelmingly replied Guarani, whereas in the city they would speak Spanish (1970). Rubin (1970) cited an example in Paraguay, where the head doctor alternated between Guarani or Spanish when speaking with his patients, depending on which language they know better and feel more comfortable in. In general, when people were asked which language they would use to talk with an unfamiliar well-dressed person, they answered in Spanish, while with a barefoot woman, they answered in Guarani. This clearly depicts the importance of all the variables associated with interlocutors on language choice: their socioeconomic status, age, gender, kinship relation, power relation, etc. (Grosjean, 1982).

In a more recent study, Commins (1989) pointed out an incident where the classroom teacher, Mr. Chavez, felt that the students were very perceptive about whom they needed to speak to in English and in Spanish. With their sisters and brothers, they used more English but with their parents and older relatives, they used Spanish. Hoffman (1971) also described that Spanish maintenance is important because Puerto Ricans associated the language with the most important value cluster--family and kinship. Spanish is "the language of the home, and is not only necessary for conversation with aged grandparents, but also with younger relatives in Puerto Rico who frequently visit and who are frequently visited" (1971).

Fishman argued that locale was a determining component of situational analysis (1971, 1972) where he claimed, "if one meets one's clergyman at the racetrack, the impact of the locale on the topics and role relationships that normally obtain is likely to be quite noticeable." For Grosjean, the presence of monolinguals was a determining variable in language choice. He cited an example of French speaking couple, who spoke French to each other but would switch to English instantly in the presence of English speakers (1982). He added: "choosing a language because of the presence of monolinguals can lead to strange situations, such as a group of friends speaking the monolingual's language although they usually use the other language with each other" (p.140). Thus, it seems the presence of monolinguals has a considerable effect on bilinguals' language choice. Commins'(1989) study has indicated that the Spanish-speaking children perceived English as the "language for school" and Spanish as the language for home and other more intimate/informal purposes. Bilingual children seem to internalize not only with whom to use the languages but also where to use them.

McGregor and Li (1991) conducted a sociolinguistic survey on language use between Chinese and English among Chinese in Britain. In light of Fishman's domain analysis and Bell's audience design, they found that the domain analysis model did not explain their results satisfactorily; their results showed that different types of interlocutors clearly called for particular choices of languages, but when the identity of the participant was not made clear, the choice of language was uncertain. Therefore, their results strongly suggested that "the most salient influence on the linguistic behavior of the speaker comes from the identity of the 'audience', and nonaudience factors such as topic and setting are subservient to particular audience types, which corresponds to Bell's audience design theory."

Purpose

The purpose of this study was to assess what external variables might influence the Korean-American students' preference for one language over another. That is, what factors are involved in their decision-making--whether conscious or subconscious--to choose Korean over English and vice versa? This study examines Fishman's mainline theory of language choice among bilinguals. Do the three domains proposed by Fishman play an equal role in predicting bilinguals' language choice? Or, just as Bell has suggested, does audience design solely determine bilinguals' language choice? If neither of them fully accounts for the bilinguals' language choice, what are some possible factors? For instance, how do the children of Korean immigrants perceive the status of Korean and English? Do Korean-American students perceive the status of the two languages to be equal? Does language "status" or "prestige" have any influence on their language choice? These questions will be addressed in the study.

Methods

A questionnaire based on Aguirre's Sociolinguistic Survey (1978) was developed and pre-tested on 10 volunteers for clarity and appropriateness. The revised version of the questionnaire was distributed to Korean-American students enrolled at the University of California, Irvine. The questionnaire, consisting of 32 questions, was circulated to 43 randomly selected Korean-American students enrolled in various courses (see Appendix). Among the 43 students who responded to the survey, 35 were considered valid for the purpose of this study. The Korean proficiency of the 35 subjects ranged between average (Level 3) to native-like fluency (Level 5).

Results

Biographical Information

The sample consisted of 17 males and 26 female students whose ages ranged from 18 to 23. Approximately 67% were born in Korea but 95% arrived in the United States before the age of 12; only 5% came to the United States at the age of 13 or over.

Fluency Level

When asked about their level of fluency in speaking, reading, and writing, 100% listed high proficiency (Level 3 to Level 5) in English. Their proficiency in Korean varied more significantly among the language subskills: in speaking, 81.4% indicated they had high proficiency (Level 3 to Level 5), but the percentage decreased to 41.9% and 27.9%, respectively, in reading and writing. Probably the most stark contrast lies in writing proficiency where 100% responded that they had high proficiency in English (Level 3 to Level 5) while 72.1% indicated they had low proficiency (Level 1 and Level 2) in Korean. Thus, the subject's English proficiency was superior to their Korean proficiency overall.

Family Domain

Since the issue of language use largely depends on a speaker's proficiency in the two languages (i.e. Korean and English), only those respondents who indicated a Level 3 or above in Korean speaking was considered. About 80%, 35 out of 43, expressed that they were proficient in both Korean and English. Of the 35 subjects who had fathers, over 70% stated that they spoke only Korean and 23% spoke both Korean and English with them, while 66% spoke only Korean and 35% spoke both Korean English to their mothers. With siblings, older brothers elicited the smallest percentage of English used—37.5%. With older sisters, the number increased to 50%. However, in both cases, the percentage of Korean/English and English only accounted for over 80%. Similarly, younger brothers elicited more Korean/English (43%) and less English (50%) than younger sisters (18%, 73%). However, in both cases less than 10% used only Korean (see Table 1). Lastly, 100% of the subjects surveyed who had grandparents living with them responded that they used Korean exclusively with their grandparents.

Topic

Both Question Six and Question Seven dealt with their parents, but they varied in topics. When the subjects communicated with their parents about education/work, 28.6% used all Korean and 45.7% used more Korean. However, in the case of reprimand, 48.6%, a considerably higher percentage, responded that their parents used all Korean (see Table 2). However, while conversing with Korean-American friends on the various topics, different results were found for Questions 20, 21, and 22. When they engaged in conversations about personal matters, 42.9% indicated that they used all English, 34.3% used more English, and 14.3% used the same amount. When they talked about sports, TV, and travels, the percentages were 45.7%, 28.6%, and 20% respectively. Finally, when they discussed academic, political, and religious matters, 58.8%, 26.5%, and 8.8%, respectively, responded that they used English. In all three cases, no subject replied that they used all Korean (see Table 3).

Interlocutor

With the place being held constant, the subjects were asked which language they use with older Korean adults and younger Korean children. While 75.8% responded that they used more or all Korean with adults, less than 10% indicated so when they spoke with children. In fact, 75% replied that they used all or more English with children. In addition, when subjects were asked which language they would use if they became friends with another Korean American of their own age, 17.6% responded that they would use all English, 41.2% more English, and 26.5% about the same. No one indicated they would use all Korean (see Table 4).

Places

Among those who attend church (90%), 55% responded that they attend English services, 28% attend Korean services, and 18% attend bilingual services. In their conversations at church, 63% indicated that they used all or more English, 23% the same amount, 15% more Korean, and none used all Korean. With the same interlocutors in different situations, Table 5 shows that at formal social gatherings on campus, 25.7% used all English, 42.9% more English, and only 8.6% used more or all Korean. In a professor's office or lecture hall, more than half, 57.1%, indicated that they used all English and 34.3% more English. In more informal activities such as in Korean student organizations on campus, 21.2% responded that they used all English, 48.5% more English, and 24.2% the same amount. On the campus, almost an equal number replied that they used all English (37.1%) and more English (40%) and 17.1% indicated that they used the same amount of Korean and English. By the same token, in a neighborhood supermarket or sidewalk, 35.3% replied that they used all English, 32.4% more English, 17.6% the same amount, and 11.8% more Korean. English was the language that was most often spoken in the majority of their neighborhoods (94%).

Of the 20 subjects who indicated that they held a job, six responded that they worked in a Korean-owned business and 13 replied that they worked in non-Korean business. Of the 20 subjects, 70% reported using all English, 20% replied using more English for a total of 90% using predominantly English in their workplace. In the presence of monolingual English speakers, 73% reported that they used only English and 27% stated that they used more English for a total of 100%. No subject reported using all Korean, more Korean, or even the same amount of English and Korean.

Perception of Language

In the final section of the questionnaire, how Korean-American students perceived Korean and English was examined. According to the results, 58.8% thought that English was more casual while only 17.6% thought that way for Korean. Moreover, 85.3% thought that Korean was more polite than English while only 8.8% thought the reverse. In pursuit of personal success, roughly half indicated that English was more useful but almost the equal percentage, 47.1%, replied that both Korean and English were important for their success. Along the same line, when asked about which language was more prestigious, 26.5% reported Korean, 23.5% English, and 50% about the same. An overwhelming number of respondents stated that they would teach both languages (88.2%) to their children for their benefit while 11.8% indicated that they would teach only Korean. No subject replied that they would teach only English (see Table 6).

Discussion

It is evident from the questionnaire that the majority of the 43 Korean-American subjects had a high level of English-proficiency in all aspects of speaking, reading, and writing, but had a lower level of Korean-proficiency, particularly in reading and writing. However, since the nature of the questions involved only speaking, and 80% claimed to have fairly good proficiency in speaking Korean (i.e. Level 3 and above), they were considered "bilingual" for the purpose of this study.

Topic

The overwhelming increase in the exclusive use of Korean from 28.6% to 48.6% when communicating with parents about education and when being disciplined seems to support the theory that the topics are strong determinants for language choice. In this case, the serious nature of the contents of the conversation occurring within the family setting probably necessitated students to use Korean to better communicate with their parents. This result coincides with Hoffman's study (1971) in which he found Hispanic fathers and children who used Spanish, their primary language, when reprimanding, while they often used English to discuss the child's educational goals and aspirations. Commins (1989) also cited a similar instance where Spanish-English bilinguals used English almost exclusively with each other except when they were angry, upset, or happy.

In another instance where the students were asked about language use in personal, TV, and academic/political matters, the results suggested the importance of topics. Whereas 14.3% and 20% responded that they used about the same amount of English and Korean in talking about issues related to personal matters and TV, respectively, only 8.8% reported using equal amount of Korean and English when they talked about academic/political matters. Moreover, academic/political topics showed the highest percentage of the subjects using all English, 58.8%, while personal and sports/TV matters received 42.9% and 45.7%, respectively (see Figure 1). This probably indicates a degree of formality; personal and sports/TV matters are relatively informal compared to academic/political matters, which are formal and often require specialized lexical knowledge, including jargons. Thus, when discussing issues related to more formal matters, the majority of the subjects used all English, the extent of which declined as topics became less formal. The reverse was also true with the younger Korean interlocutors. More than 75% responded that they used all or more English with the younger Korean-American children, and with Korean-Americans of their own age 58% said they used all or more English. The same pattern emerged with their siblings where English was used more often with younger siblings than with older siblings (see Table 1).

Interlocutor

There seems to be a correlation between the age of the addressee and the language choice. When speaking to older Korean adults, more than 75% of the subjects responded that they used more or all Korean. In fact, all subjects (100%) who lived with their grandparents indicated that they used only Korean when speaking to their grandparents. On the other hand, when subjected engaged in conversation with juniors and peers, only 9.4% and 14.7%, respectively, used more or all Korean.

This phenomenon is probably related to cultural perception. It is likely that Korean-American students may have developed the notion that all or most older Koreans immigrated to the United States as adults; thus, lacking English proficiency skills. In addition, because Korean-American college students regard Korean as the more polite language, they may be electing to use Korean to express reverence and respect. Thus, although the focus of interlocutors was predominantly age, these results are consistent with previous studies by Fishman (1972), Grosjean (1982), and Commins (1989): age and kinship are important determinants in language choice (See Table 1 and Figure 2).

Place

When we look at the values 25.7%, 57.1%, 21.2%, 37.1%, and 35.3% using all English in formal social gatherings, professor's office, Korean clubs, UCI sidewalk, and neighborhood supermarket, respectively, it appears to support the theory that different situations determine language use. In the most academically-related environment—i.e., in a professor's office or lecture hall--the majority of the students

(90%) used predominantly English. In contrast, in an informal gathering place such as at a Korean school function, the number sharply decreased to less than 70%, and quite interestingly, it produced the highest percentage, 24.2%, of subjects using the same amount of Korean and English while the percentage was the lowest, 5.7%, in the professor's office/lecture hall (see Figure 3). These results seem to indicate that bilinguals are sensitive to the location in which the communication is taking place when deciding which language to use. Or to put it in another way, the subjects seem to select a language based on their perception of whether the environment is "bilingual-friendly" or "monolingual-friendly". In this case, the more academically enclosed space such as a professor's office and lecture halls seem to elicit more English than in a more relaxed atmosphere such as in a Korean student meeting.

It is interesting, however, to see the low percentage of English use in formal meetings. At first, it seems more likely that they would use predominantly English in formal meetings in the presence of non-Korean professors and administrators. However, the result showed that only 25% used all English in formal meetings versus 57% in a professor's office. Furthermore, a relatively high figure, 23%, responded that they used the same amount of either language, almost equating the percentage of those who use two languages in the Korean club. This may be due to the peculiarity of the university student population: The Asian-American students make up the largest ethnic group, more than 50%, of the entire student body. As a result, when they read the word "formal meetings," it may have reminded them of student meetings where bilingual Korean-American peers are present. Thus, they may have felt comfortable in using both Korean and English. It is also worth mentioning that the predominant use of English (90%) by those students who had a job supported the contention that English is used much more often for professional activities (Grosjean, 1982; Greenfield, 1972) as they deal with English-speaking customers and business.

Finally, the most striking and significant number was found in the presence of monolinguals. In some studies (e.g., Grosjean, 1982 and Rubin, 1970), it was treated as "place" whereas in other studies (e.g., Bell, 1984 and McGregor & Li, 1991), it was treated as "interlocutors". Although there is a difference in view as to where the presence of monolinguals should be categorized, its significance cannot be ignored. All subjects in the study indicated that they used more English when in the presence of a monolingual (i.e. those who speak only English) in the conversational circle (see Figure 1). This was the only instance in which there was unanimity, affirming the predominant use of English. This is a strong indication that the presence of monolinguals affected the bilinguals' language choice. Grosjean (1982) theorized that this tendency was based on the speaker's choice as "so as not to stand out from the people around them."

Formality

The results of this study points yet another plausible domain in language choice--the distinction between "formal" versus "informal" (Bentahila, 1983; Greenfield, 1972; Hoffman, 1991; Rubin). For example, among Arabic and French bilinguals, their native language, Arabic, was considered more informal/intimate, whereas French was considered more formal/non-intimate (Bentahila, 1983:73). Rubin reported a similar instance where Spanish was required on formal occasions while their native language, Guarani, was used for informal occasions. Greenfield (1972), moreover, described the Puerto Rican community in New York where their native language, Spanish, may have come to be associated with values such as intimacy and to be used primarily in domains such as family and friendship (i.e. informal), while English may have come to be associated with formality or values such as status differentiation such as religion, education, and employment. Therefore, rather than categorizing them as "topic", "interlocutor", and "place", it may be more appropriate to differentiate them by the degree of "formality": Formal topic, informal topic, formal interlocutor, informal interlocutor, formal place, informal place, etc. Thus, the degree of formality seems to be a larger and more important issue in language choice.

Language Status

The final questions on the questionnaire provided the most interesting aspect of the study; the Korean-American students' perception of language status. Despite its ostensible factors for language choice (i.e. topic, interlocutor, and place), there seems to exist a much more significant issue. Commins (1989) reported that a negative stigmatization affects language use. Hymes (1977) also wrote: "A Child acquires also a system of its use, regarding persons, places, purposes, other modes of communication…all the components of communicative events, together with attitudes and beliefs regarding them." More recent studies support the importance of language attitude. Appel (1988), Hoffman (1991), Honkala, and Skutnabb-Kangas (1988) all concluded that any form of suppression of minority language resulted in children who avoided the use of their home language.

According to the data collected from Question 28, close to 50% of the subjects responded that they perceived Korean to be equally important as English for their success in the United States. Moreover, while the overwhelming majority, 88.2%, felt that being able to speak both Korean and English was beneficial for their children, none of the subjects thought that being able to speak only English was beneficial for their children. These results are inconsistent with previous studies where children refused to speak or learn their primary language. It is possible that unlike the earlier generation, late immigrants tend to value the importance of maintaining Korean language and identity.

When the subjects were asked about how they perceived the prestige of the two languages, the number was equally divided: 50% responded that both languages had about the same status, while 26.5% and 23.5%, respectively, stated that Korean and English were more prestigious. Based on the results, there seems to be some confusion in the subject's perception of what prestige is. The intended definition of the term "prestige" was equivalent to "success" or "status": how much money or status they can earn using particular language as its means. However, it seems the subjects may have interpreted the meaning of "prestige" to be something beyond "status"; that is, "prestige" associated with "respect", "politeness", and "long-tradition or history" that are salient notions in Korean tradition. Just as 85.3% responded to Question 29 that Korean was more polite/formal than English, Korean is the language that places heavy emphasis on social status.

Conclusion

Although some factors such as age of the interlocutors, the presence of monolinguals, and discussion in professor's office elicited higher percentage in choosing one language over the other, the results of this study indicate that overall, there was a strong correlation between the bilinguals' language choice and all three factors that Fishman mentioned: topic, interlocutor, and place. In addition, according to the results, the issue of language choice seem to necessitate wider issues than just an "audience design" that Bell had proposed. In other words, "audience design" is insufficient in accounting for all the different results obtained from this study, especially in the domain of topic and places. The best example can be seen in the topics of education and reprimand between parents and children. As the study indicated, there were many cases in which topics and places were central to determining language choice. It is also evident from this study that sometimes a clear line cannot be drawn between "place" and "interlocutor" as in the example of the presence of monolinguals. Moreover, the study found that the speaker's perception of formality of topic, interlocutor, or place is a greater predictor of choice of language than merely domain analysis.

This study has also indicated that the bilinguals' language attitude--the perception of their primary and secondary language—are a determinant factor in language choice. Factors such as how they were taught to view their two languages (e.g., proud, useful, high/low prestige, negative stigma, etc.) by their parents and society at large-friends, schools, and workplace seem to have influenced their language choice.

Although the above results were found by using only the quantitative devices, it should be noted that some limitations arose out of only using the quantitative method. As Martin-Jones suggests: "sociolinguistic survey work slants observations toward the *what* rather than the *how or why* of bilingual communication. However, researchers who are primarily concerned with addressing *how- or why-type* questions will be drawn toward a more ethnographic approach and to microlevel studies of language in use" (1991). Thus, in order to explore deeper into the problem, an ethnographic/qualitative approach in addition to a quantitative one is recommended. A qualitative research would, for example, reveal such as those students who may have misunderstood the questions.

It would be also interesting to conduct a similar study among non-academic Korean-English bilinguals (e.g. high school graduates). If the study reveals a substantial difference in their language use and perception, then it may be possible that the academic environment may have an influence views and language selection.

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TABLE 1

Language Spoken With Family Members

Language	Father	Mother	Older Bro	Older Sis	Yngr Bro	Yngr Sis
Korean	70.6%	65.7%	12.5%	21.4%	7.1%	9.1%
Kor/Eng	23.5%	34.3%	50%	28.6%	42.9%	18.2%
English	5.9%	0%	37.5%	50.0%	50.0%	72.7%

n=35

TABLE 2

Language Used for Different Topics With Parents

Language	Education/Work	Reprimand
All Korean	28.6%	48.6%
More Korean	45.7%	34.3%
Same Amount	8.6%	8.6%
More English	14.3%	8.6%
All English	2.9%	0%

n=35

TABLE 3

Language Used for Different Topics With Their Peers

Language	Personal	Sports/TV	Acad/Politics
All Korean	0%	0%	0%
More Korean	8.6%	5.7%	5.9%
Same Amount	14.3%	20.0%	8.8%
More English	34.3%	28.6%	26.5%
All English	42.9%	45.7%	58.8%

n=35

TABLE 4

Language Used With Different Korean Interlocutors

Language	Adults	Children	Same Age
All Korean	18.2%	0%	0%
More Korean	57.6%	9.4%	14.7%
Same Amount	12.1%	15.6%	26.5%
More English	6.1%	43.8%	41.2%
All English	6.1%	31.3%	17.6%

n=35

TABLE 5

Language Used In Different Places

Language	Formal Mtg.	Prof's Office	Korean Club	UCI Sidewalk
All Korean	0%	0%	0%	0%
More Korean	8.6%	2.9%	6.1%	5.7%
Same Amount	22.9%	5.7%	24.2%	17.1%
More English	42.9%	34.3%	48.5%	40.0%
All English	25.7%	57.1%	21.2%	37.1%

n=35

TABLE 6

Perception of Language Status

Language	Casual	Formal	Success	Prestige	Benefit
Korean	17.6%	85.3%	2.9%	26.5%	11.8%
Same	23.5%	5.9%	47.1%	50.0%	88.2%
English	58.8%	8.8%	50.0%	23.5%	0%

n=35

FIGURE 1

Language Used With Their Korean-American Peers By Topic

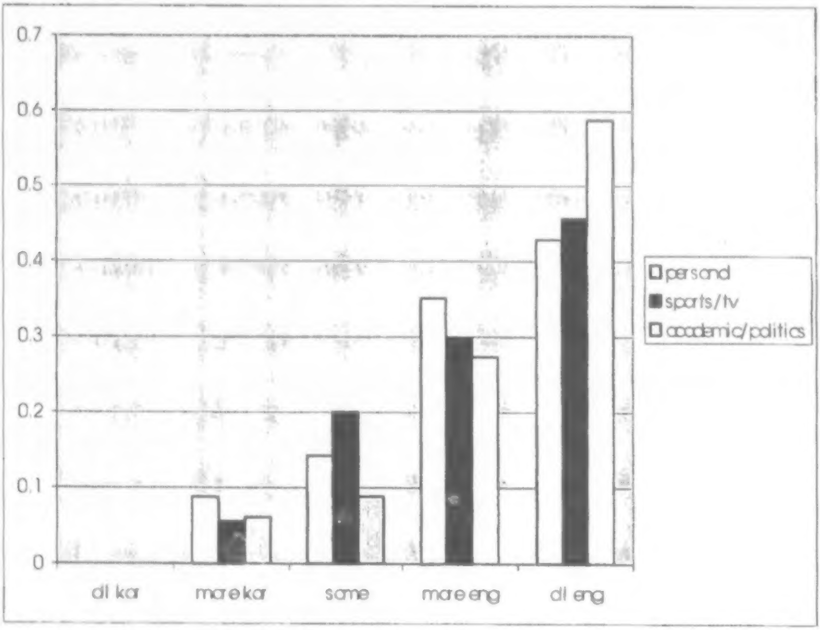


FIGURE 2

Language Used With Different Interlocutors

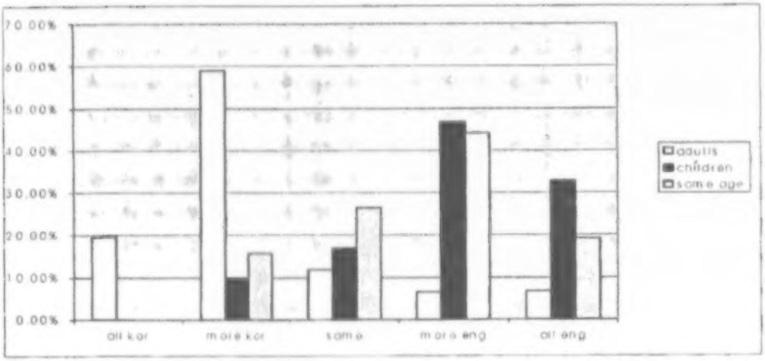
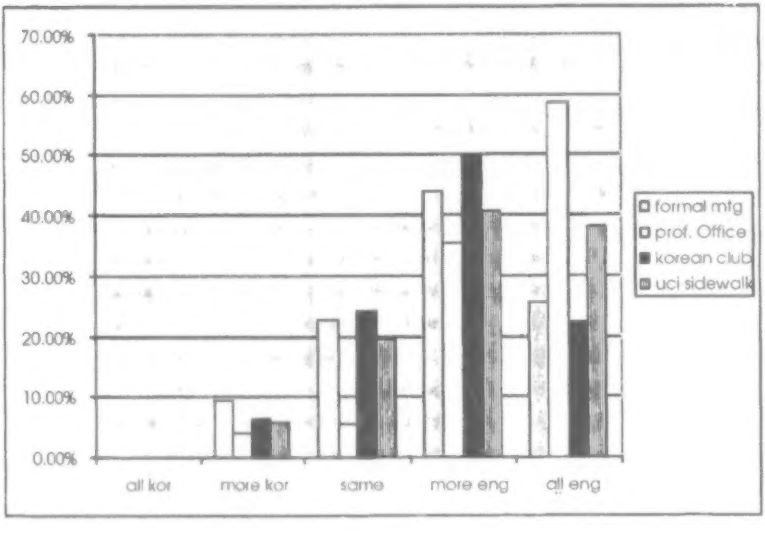


FIGURE 3

Language Used With Their Peers by Place



APPENDIX

QUESTIONNAIRE
(Based on Aguirre's 1978 Sociolinguistic Survey)

1. Are you a: Male Female (Circle one)

In which year were you born? ________

2. Where were you born? Korea U.S. Other (Specify ______________)

3. If you were born in Korea, how old were you when you came to the U.S. ?

____________________ Years Old

4. Please list all the persons in your house/family.
(Starting with the oldest person in your house)

	AGE	SEX	RELATIONSHIP	LANGUAGE SPOKEN WITH
A.				
B.				
C.				
D.				
E.				
F.				

5. Please rate your language proficiency using 1 through 5 (Circle a proficiency number).

1: Almost Non-Proficient 2: Lmted Proficient 3: Average 4: Near Native 5: Native Proficient

Speak:	Korean (1 2 3 4 5)	English (1 2 3 4 5)
Read:	Korean (1 2 3 4 5)	English (1 2 3 4 5)
Write:	Korean (1 2 3 4 5)	English (1 2 3 4 5)

6. Which language do you usually use when you talk with your parents at home about education/work?

All English More English Same More Korean All Korean

7. Which language do you usually use when you talk with your parents when they reprimand/discipline you?

All English More English Same More Korean All Korean

8. What language do you usually use when you talk to your grandparents at home? (If you have none, do not respond to this question).

All English More English Same More Korean All Korean

9. What language do you usually use when you talk to your sister(s) and/or brother(s) at home? (If you have none, do not respond to this question)

All English More English Same More Korean All Korean

10. Which service do you attend in your church? (Skip to No. 12 if you don't go to church)

English Korean Bilingual

11. When you go to church, which language do you usually speak?

All English More English Same More Korean All Korean

12. When you talk to your Korean-American friends at formal social gatherings on campus, what language do you usually speak:

All English More English Same More Korean All Korean

13. When you talk to your Korean-American friends in UCI lecture halls, or in a professor's office, what language do you usually speak:

All English More English Same More Korean All Korean

14. When you talk to your Korean-American friends in Korean clubs and activities at UCI, what language do you usually speak:

All English More English Same More Korean All Korean

15. When you talk to your Korean-American friends on UCI sidewalk, what language do you usually speak:

All English More English Same More Korean All Korean

16. If you have a job, which language do you usually use at work? (If you don't work, skip to No. 18).

All English More English Same More Korean All Korean

17. Is your workplace owned by (circle one): Korean Non-Korean

18. When you are with your Korean-American friends in your neighborhood store or sidewalk, what language do you usually speak:

All English More English Same More Korean All Korean

19. What is the language most often spoken in your neighborhood?

All English More English Same More Korean All Korean

20. When you talk about personal matters with your Korean-American friends, which language do you normally use?

All English More English Same More Korean All Korean

21. When you talk about sports, TV, or travels with your Korean-American friends, which language do you normally use?

All English More English Same More Korean All Korean

22. When you talk about academic, political, or religious matters with your Korean-American friends, which language do you normally use?

All English More English Same More Korean All Korean

23. When you talk about life in UCI at a social gathering with 'local' Korean adults who are older than you, which language do you use?

All English More English Same More Korean All Korean

24. When you talk about life at a UCI social gathering with 'local' Korean youth/children, which language do you use?

All English More English Same More Korean All Korean

25. When you become very friendly or familiar with another Korean-American your own age, what language do you usually speak:

All English More English Same More Korean All Korean

26. When you talk about life at UCI at a social gathering with your Korean-American friends in the presence of a third party, who is a non-Korean, which language do you normally use?

All English More English Same More Korean All Korean

27. According to your perception, which language is more casual?

Korean English Same

28. According to your perception, which language is more useful in pursuit of your "success"?

Korean English Same

29. According to your perception, which language is more polite/formal?

Korean English Same

30. According to your perception, which language is more prestigious?

Korean English Same

31. If you were to teach your children a language that is beneficial for their future, which language(s) would you teach?

Korean English Both

32. Have you ever had a negative experience of being/speaking Korean in your school or at work?

Yes No

Recent Trends in Foreign Language Teaching in the United States: The Role of Heritage Leraners

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0. Introduction

This paper surveys recent trends regarding foreign language policies in the U.S., particularly with respect to minority languages, and reexamines the role of heritage learners in light of the new trends. Early foreign language policies focused on subtractive bilingualism. This is now moving toward additive bilingualism which in particular emphasizes utilizing the acquired built-in foreign language proficiency of heritage learners of minority languages for national security. Heritage learners are not only not discriminated against but are now recruited for their contribution in this nationally critical area. Of the various important aspects in the latest trend, this paper will deal only with the rationale for choosing heritage learners as the optimal target population.

In section 1, we briefly survey foreign language policies in the U.S. The most recent policy, still in the form of an initiative in Congress, aims to produce speakers with advanced, "professional" proficiency (ACTFL Scale Superior Level or Interagency Language Roundtable (ILR) Scale Level 3 proficiency in listening, speaking, and reading, or better). The characteristics of ACTFL Scale Superior Level or ILR Scale Level 3 is specified in section 2. Section 3 discusses, making use of Table 2, the length of training required to achieve this level and shows the difficulty non-heritage learners who are non-language majors have in achieving this level. Section 4, making use of the results of the Korean Language Placement Test (KLPT), will review the heritage learner's characteristics, which will indicate that the goals of the Initiative will be easily accomplished if the target recruits are heritage learners. A brief conclusion will be presented in section 5.

1. Foreign Language Policy in the U.S.

The Bilingual Education Acts of 1968 and 1974, also known as Title VII and subsequent 1978, 1984, 1988 amendments, provide supplemental funding for school districts interested in establishing programs to meet the "special educational needs" of large numbers of (mainly immigrant) children of limited English proficiency in the U.S. However, the underlying language policy recommends a subtractive policy of assimilation into English for minority language speakers. This essentially advocates an "English Only"[1] policy. The costs of such monolingualism are well discussed by Snow and Hakuta (1992).

The additive bilingual policy, "English Plus,"[2] was systemically proposed for the first time in *Standards for Foreign Language Learning: Preparing for the 21st Century*. Its philosophy statement declares (1996: 7):

> … This imperative envisions a future in which ALL students will develop and maintain proficiency in English and at least one other language, modern or classical. **Children who come to school from non-English-speaking backgrounds should also have opportunities to develop further proficiencies in their first language** (emphasis added).

The scarcity of speakers with "professional" level of proficiency is taken up as a matter of national security and it is well documented by the National Security Education Program (NSEP), which states in its overview of their new project, National Flagship Language Initiative (NFLI) (2000: 1):

> Some 80 federal agencies and offices involved in areas related to U.S. national security rely increasingly on human resources with high levels of language competency and international knowledge and experience. Finding these resources, and in particular finding candidates for employment as professionals in the U.S. Government, has proven increasingly difficult, and many agencies now report shortfalls in hiring, deficits in readiness, and adverse impacts on operations.

Under the auspices of the NSEP, with the collaboration of the National Foreign Language Center (NFLC) at the University of Maryland, the NFLI has been submitted to Congress. The Initiative is being deliberated in Congress and federal appropriations are expected in late September or early October 2001.

The NSEP and NFLC target heritage learners as the most promising candidates (2000: 2)

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[1] Cf. Baron, D. (1990)

[2] Cf. Cazden & Snow (1990)

> There are a number of student populations, both undergraduate and graduate, that would enroll in flagship programs. A critical constituency of each student population is the *heritage learner* (emphasis original).

Heritage learners are hailed for fulfilling the primary purpose of the Initiative for production of speakers in the Superior Level on the ACTFL scale or Level 3 on the ILR scale.

2. Characteristics of ACTFL Superior Level or ILR Level 3

The goals of the NFLI are:

> - The graduation of students with a true functional proficiency in a language, at least a 3/3/3 (listening/reading/speaking) proficiency (on the ILR scale)…
> - The creation of permanent capacity, at the national and local levels, for advanced level programming in critical languages.

The first goal is to produce advanced "professional" speakers of a foreign language among those majoring in critical professional fields such as law, business, medicine, etc. This goal is the immediate concern of this paper. Table 1 gives a comparison of the ILR Levels with those of the ACTFL scale which is more familiar in academia.

From Omaggio Hadley's description of the Superior Level of the ACTFL scale (ILR Levels 3, 3+, 4, 4+, 5), only the sections pertinent to the ILR Levels 3 are excerpted below.

Basically, Superior-level speakers can be characterized as follows (2001: 18):

> i. They have, at the very minimum, a "professional" level of proficiency; that is, they can handle a broad range of topics and situations, give supported opinions, hypothesize, provide complicated explanations, describe in detail with a great deal of precision, and tackle virtually any practical, social, professional, or abstract topic that they can discuss in their native language.
> ii. Although they may make random errors in grammar, especially in the more complicated structures of the language, speakers at the Superior level rarely make errors that would interfere with comprehension or distract their conversational partner from the message being conveyed.

Table 1: Relationship of the ILR Scale to the ACTFL Scale[3]

ACTFL Scale	ILR Scale	
Superior	5	Native or bilingual proficiency
	4+	
	4	Distinguished proficiency
	3+	
	3	Professional working proficiency
Advanced High	2+	
Advanced	2	Limited working proficiency
Intermediate High	1+	
Intermediate Mid	1	Survival proficiency
Intermediate Low		
Novice High	0+	
Novice Mid	0	No practical proficiency
Novice Low		

Source: Buck, Byrnes, and Thompson, 1989, pp. 2-15.

> iii. At the lower end of the Superior range (ILR Level 3), speakers may occasionally lack some precision in vocabulary, but they are rarely at a loss to express their meaning through paraphrase or circumlocution. Strategic competence is high at this level, as is discourse competence. Though the Level 3 speaker may be unfamiliar with some idiomatic expressions and unable to shift registers easily, sociolinguistic competence is continuously developing....

Who can attain this "professional" level of proficiency? In the next section, we will examine achievements at the Foreign Service Institute (FSI).

3. Length of Training at the Foreign Service Institute

Table 2 shows the expected time needed to achieve different levels of speaking proficiency in languages taught at the Foreign Service Institute.

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[3] This table is from the 2nd Edition (1993) of Omaggio Hadley's *Teaching Language in Context*. *ACTFL Proficiency Guidelines—Speaking* was revised in 1999 and the Advanced level, which had sub-levels of Advanced and Advanced Plus (cf. Omaggio Hadley (1993: 510) is now sub-divided into Low, Mid, High as are the Intermediate and Novice Levels. (Cf. the 3rd edition of Omaggio Hadley's (2001:469))

Along with Arabic, Chinese, and Japanese, Korean is classified as one of the most difficult languages for English speakers. The people being trained in the FSI are current or prospective diplomats who are supposed to be intellectually exceptionally bright. For those with average aptitude for language learning, it takes 80-92 weeks (2400-2760 hours) to attain the ILR Level 3. Apparently, students at the FSI are studying 6 hours a day, 30 hours a week (from Monday to Friday). With this intensity, it takes 1.5 to 1.75 years to attain Level 3.

What is the curriculum structure in a typical college foreign language program? We will take the University of Hawaii at Manoa (UHM) curriculum specifically as an example[4]. The lower-level section, which includes only first- and second-year courses, offers five contact hours per week[5]. All other upper-level courses meet three hours a week. This calculates into 160 class hours per year in the lower-level courses and 96 class hours per year[6] in the upper-level courses. In four years, then, the contact hours amount to 512 hours. This figure is less than one-fifth of 2,580 hours (the medium of the two figures in Table 2). Therefore, it would take about 5 times of four-year college program, which amounts to 20 years. It is impossible for any college student to be engaged in learning Korean for that long. On the other hand, college language programs cannot match the intensity of the FSI. This calculation indicates that producing ILR Level 3 speakers out of non-language majors in a typical college program is all but impossible.

Table 2: Expected levels of speaking proficiency in languages taught at the FSI

Group I:	Afrikaans, Danish, Dutch, French, Haitian Creole, Italian, Norwegian, Portuguese, Romanian, Spanish, Swedish		
	Aptitude for language learning		
	Minimum	Average	Superior
8 weeks (240 hours)	1	1/1+	1+
16 weeks (480 hours)	1+	2	2+
24 weeks (720 hours)	2	2+	3
Group II:	Bulgarian, Dari, Farsi, German, Greek, Hindi, Indonesian, Malay, Urdu		
	Aptitude for language learning		

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[4] This is necessary for calculation of contact hours that heritage students had in the next section, where we examine their performance in relation to their contact hours.

[5] From the fall semester of 2001-2 academic year, the contact hours are schedule to be reduced from five to four hours a week.

[6] Students who are majoring in a foreign language can have more contact hours by taking more courses. In this NSEP program, our target students are non-language majors.

	Minimum	Average	Superior
16 weeks (480 hours)	1	1/1+	1+/2
24 weeks (720 hours)	1+	2	2+/3
44 weeks (1,320 hours)	2/2+	2+/3	3/3+
Group III: Amharic, Bengali, Burmese, Czech, Finnish, Hebrew, Hungarian, Khmer, Lao, Nepali, Philipino, Polish, Russian, Serbo-Croatian, Sinhala, Thai, Tamil, Turkish, Vietnamese			
	Aptitude for language learning		
	Minimum	Average	Superior
16 weeks (480 hours)	0+	1	1/1+
24 weeks (720 hours)	1+	2	2/2+
44 weeks (1,320 hours)	2	2+	3
Group IV: Arabic, Chinese, Japanese, Korean			
	Aptitude for language learning		
	Minimum	Average	Superior
16 weeks (480 hours)	0+	1	1
24 weeks (720 hours)	1	1+	1+
44 weeks (1,320 hours)	1+	2	2+
80-92 weeks (2,400-2,760 hours)	2+	3	3+

For the purpose of achieving the goals of the NFLI, what is an alternative to the current college curriculum which caters mainly to non-heritage students? We will try to examine the plausibility with heritage students and see some light in the next section.

4. Characteristics of Heritage Learners

What are the characteristics of the language ability of heritage learners; that is, the type and depth of their heritage language proficiency?

At the UHM, we developed the Korean Language Placement Test (KLPT) under my direction as principle investigator[7]. It is the first of its kind and was pilot-tested at Columbia University, Indiana University, Rutgers University, Kapiolani Community College, and UHM. The analysis of the KLPT results reveals various pieces of empirical evidence heretofore unavailable. Only one critical finding of the KLPT pertinent to this paper will be discussed. It is that the empirical evidence confirms what we have suspected all along i.e., heritage students' interpretative communication (cf. Brecht and Walton 1994) ability has a strong correlation with their grammar, vocabulary, and reading abilities.

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[7] This part is from my paper "The KLPT offers new directives for KFL" presented at 12th International Circle of Korean Linguistics Conference July 13-15, 2000 at Prague, Czech Republic.

Together with a more detailed Background Information Sheet administered to 81 students who took the KLPT at UHM in 1998-99, the test score results attest:

1. Many of the heritage students[8] have had two-language communication; i.e., their parents speak to them in Korean and they themselves speak to their parents in English, i.e., students generally engaged in interpretive communication in Korean.
2. The Indiana-UHM-Kapiolani portion shows that:
    1. Their listening comprehension ability correlates with their grammar ability in the KLPT (the rate is .74 in Form A and .82 in Form B);
    2. It also correlates with their vocabulary performance (the rate is .70 in both Forms A and B);
    3. The correlation rates with the reading test are .64 in both Form A and B.

These results suggest that the type of proficiency of heritage learners is not limited to listening only but includes correlative knowledge of grammar, vocabulary and reading and that learning the interpretive mode of a language is half of learning a foreign language.

Now, what is the depth of the heritage learners' knowledge? One measurement can be OPI results in terms of hours calculated by the FSI. The competition for designation as a flagship is still underway and it is therefore unadvisable to reveal the capacity status of the UHM in the middle of competition lest it should jeopardize the UHM's position. We administered OPI tests in the spring semester of this year (2001) to the 3rd and 4th year students[9]. I will take just two students as examples, Y from the third level class and P from the fourth year class; Y is a sophomore and P a freshman. Both were placed in those levels through placement tests at the beginning of the fall semester of last year (August 2000). Both have had approximately 80 hours of contact hours by the time of the OPI interviews. Y was found to be at the Intermediate High level and P at the Advanced Mid level. According to Table 1 and footnote 3, the Intermediate High level is equivalent to 1+ and Advanced Mid to between 2 and 2+. How long is it supposed to take to achieve these levels of proficiency? According to the FSI statistics, to attain 1+ proficiency, 720 hours are required, and to attain 2~2+ level, 1320 or more. If one tries to achieve these levels through a college curriculum, it will take 5.6 years and 10 years or more, respectively.

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[8] Except, of course, some who lived with monolingual grandparents and/or nearly-monolingual parents. These students had no alternative but to speak to them in Korean.

[9] Dr. Soo Ah Kim Yuen at the UHM system is one of two ACTFL-certified OPI testers in the entire U.S.

The case study of these students, together with the KLPT study, indicates that 1) heritage learners' proficiency is not limited only to listening but also includes grammar, vocabulary, and reading and 2) their knowledge is quite extensive, and non-heritage learners would have to devote an enormous amount of time to reach a comparable level of proficiency.

5. Conclusion

Banking upon the already acquired proficiency of heritage learners and backed by the capacity increase plans (not to be revealed yet), the NFLI would be able achieve the goal of producing speakers with "professional" proficiency. Thereby the nation will be able to meet the dire need of critical professionals. For this reason, heritage learners are not only not shown discrimination against but are now solicited for their contribution in this nationally critical area and they are hailed in the NFLI. One concern at this juncture is that heritage speakers and learners are fast dwindling. We have to appropriate increasingly more resources with the funding from the NFLI on the "feeder" portion of capacity increase programs to prepare enough recruits who have the proficiency of at least Advance Mid level (or ILR Level 2~2+).

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Part VIII

High School Programs

Korean Language Education in New York City Public Schools

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Flushing High School

The Korean Native Language Arts (NLA) program in New York City began in 1979 as part of a bilingual education program for immigrant students with limited English proficiency. The purpose of this paper is to review and discuss (1) the history of the Native Language Arts program, (2) Korean Native Language Arts credits, (3) the New York City High School and Junior High School NLA population, (4) the Korean Regents test and SAT II Korean test, (5) the Foreign Language teaching certificate, (6) curricular issues and teaching methods, (7) and finally recommendations.

History

The Korean Native Language Arts program in New York City is a part of mandated bilingual education programs. On September 15, 1977, the Board of Education of New York City and the Office of Civil Rights agreed on the guidelines for the implementation of an instructional program for pupils whose limited English language ability prevents them from effectively participating in the learning process and whose home language is other than English or Spanish. This program is based on federal regulations for Title VI of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 and the 1974 Supreme Court decision in Lau V. Nichols. The Supreme Court Decision stated that the city of San Francisco failed to provide equal access to students of Chinese descent and violated Title VI of the Civil Rights Act of 1964, which prohibits discrimination on the basis of race, color or national origin.

The entitlement to a bilingual program is determined by a student's English Language Assessment Battery (LAB). If a Lau eligible student scores at or below the 41 percentile, the student is "entitled". Under the ruling, a school having 20 children or more on a grade level must provide a model of bilingual education. The elements of the bilingual program are intensive instruction in English as a Second Language, instruction in content areas in the students' language, and reinforcement and development of the native language arts skills. The native language arts component is designed to develop communication skills, including those of listening, speaking, reading and writing in a student's home language as well as an appreciation of the history and culture of both the United States and the country of origin, through the study of literature. Unlike bilingual content area subjects, ESL and Native Language Arts subjects cannot be opted out; students are required to take these subjects until they pass the English LAB test.

Twenty-six years later, the public school system's commitment to providing quality instruction to Limited English Proficient (LEP) students or ELLs (English Language Learners) remains steadfast, but the task has grown increasingly complex. Today, almost 160,000 or 15 percent of New York City public school students are ELLs, representing over 140 different languages. These students enter the public schools at every grade level throughout the school year with varying levels of language proficiency in English and their Native Languages. Regardless of these circumstances, under New York State's new graduation requirements, ELLs must pass five Regents Examinations, including the English Regents, to receive a high school diploma. The 1998 California referendum rejecting bilingual education has also heightened the debate on bilingual education. In November 2000, Arizona became the second state to pass a resolution eliminating bilingual education. The combination of diverse demographics, rising graduation standards, and the California debate compelled re-examination of current practices in educating ELLs. The current mayor of New York City and his newly appointed Chancellor of Education have initiated a wave of changes that will be in effect for the 2001-2002 school year. The change made to the existing program will directly affect the education of both bilingual and monolingual children citywide. As mentioned above, the 1977 guidelines were provided for determining the eligibility of bilingual services. In spite of this mandate, the chancellor recently released the Chancellor's Report on the education of ELLs. The forty-page document outlines the new guidelines in regards to services offered to limited English proficient children. In New York City, the provision of services to bilingual children has been redesigned to reflect current political trends.

Under this new agenda, parents will be offered four program choices, which are categorized as follows:

- Transitional bilingual program
- Dual Language bilingual program
- Free-standing English as a Second (ESL) program
- Accelerated Academic English Language Program (design in progress)

The restructuring measures taken by the chancellor appear to launch many major changes. A closer look at the new initiative, which will take effect in September 2001, reveals that there are very few differences in the composition of the new program. The most significant distinction is associated with the last of the parental options, which has yet to be fully designed. It seems that re-naming and re-labeling are methods used to accommodate current political views and perceived public opinion. The views presented by opponents and proponents of bilingual education provide the clear picture of the difficult battle ahead. Both litigants have strong opposing opinions backed and supported by many.

Korean Native Language Arts

In New York City High Schools, Korean NLA programs are for daily class instruction all year and eight levels of Korean Native Language Arts class sequences are offered. Students with limited English proficiency (LEP) or English Language Learners are permitted to use these programs for foreign language credit. For regular mainstream students, one year of one foreign language is required for a local high school diploma. However, for a Regents diploma, three years of one foreign language are mandated by the commissioner's regulations, with a passing score on the Regents test. Beginning with the class of students entering grade 9 in the year 2001 there will not be a local diploma. For Korean High School students, Korean Native Language Arts proficiency is very important. English Language Learners entering school in this country in grade 9 or later may take required Regents examinations in their native language if the examination is taken within three years of entering this country. Currently Korean, Spanish, Haitian Creole, Russian and Chinese versions of the Regents are available.

Korean NLA teachers should develop instructional plans to enable students not only to achieve proficiency in the Korean language but also to expand their knowledge in content areas such as history and science. NLA teachers are required to revise and coordinate the ESL English Language Arts (ELA) and Native Language Arts curricula (NLA) so that NLA classes would reinforce the competencies demanded by the ELA Regents examination. According to the Chancellor's report, the additional competencies acquired through the use of the students' native language, resulted in greatly increased rates of students' passing the ELA Regents as well as the English LAB (Language Assessment Battery) test.

The Korean Language Student Population of NY City High Schools and a Junior High School

Since Newtown High School began its Korean Native Language Arts program in 1979, William Cullen Bryant HS, Flushing HS, Francis Lewis HS, Bayside HS, Benjamin Cardozo HS and Junior High School 189-Queens started to offer Korean NLA classes. From the fall of 2000, Stuyvesant High School, which is one of the most competitive high schools in New York City, also began a Korean program. The following shows the number of students in attendance at these schools.

Schools	Number of students	Location
Bayside High School	**65**	**Bayside**
W.C. Bryant High School	**39**	**Long Island City**
B. Cardozo High School	**78**	**Bayside**
Flushing High School	**79**	**Flushing**
Francis Lewis High School	**125**	**Flushing**
Newtown High School	**78**	**Elmhurst**
Stuyvesant High School	**56**	**Manhattan**
Junior High School 189Q	**90**	**Flushing**

What should be noted about the Stuyvesant High School's Korean language program is that the Korean Teachers' Association of New York and the parents in the school made a tremendous effort in order to create the program. While Stuyvesant High School students are English proficient students who opted in to the Native Language Arts program, the students of the other eight schools are mostly newly arrived immigrants. They had already acquired the mastery of cognitive academic language proficiency in Korean. Most of these students reside in the Borough of Queens, which has a large concentration of Korean immigrants.

The Korean Regents Test and SAT II Korean Test

When students complete the sequence of the Korean NLA program, they are required to take the Korean Regents test during the State Regents week in June. The Regents tests of all foreign languages are administered at the same time statewide. The Korean Regents test consists of four parts: Speaking Performance (24 points), Listening Comprehension (30 points), Reading Comprehension (30 points) and Writing (16 points). For the speaking performance test, the teacher pulls out the students one by one and conducts the teacher and student test adhering to the New York State Foreign Language Regents guidelines. The speaking test should be completed one week prior to the Regents week. The remainder of the test is given during the Regents week. This is a three-hour pencil and paper test. The listening part, in which a teacher reads the questions aloud to students and the reading parts are multiple-choice questions. In the first writing part, students are instructed to write a note containing at least six clauses for a total of six credits. In the second part, students are asked to write a narrative based on a picture or a letter. The narrative or letter must contain at least ten clauses for a total of ten credits. For rating the writing part, the rater reads the note or narrative/letter in its entirety to determine whether the stated purpose has been achieved. If the purpose has not been achieved, the part does not get any credit at all. Only when the purpose has been achieved, does the rater proceed to identify and rate each clause. Each clause is evaluated in three ways: comprehensibility, appropriateness, and form. Comprehensibility is determined by the rater's visual inspection and judgment as to whether the clause would be understood by a literate native reader of Korean. Appropriateness is determined on the basis of the clause's contribution to the development of the note and narrative/letter. Form is adherence to conventional rules of grammar and orthography.

The SAT II Korean Subject test is a one-hour test with about 20 minutes of listening and 40 minutes of usage and reading. There are 80 to 85 multiple-choice questions. The skills measured are Listening Comprehension (35%), Usage (30%) and Reading Comprehension (35%). This test is designed for students who have studied Korean as a second or foreign language for two, three, or four years in high school, or the equivalent. The SAT II Korean subject test does not have speaking and writing parts, and students must bring a cassette player with earphones to the test center in order to take the listening part. On the other hand, the Korean Regents test does not have the usage part that requires students to complete Korean sentences or phrases which are structurally and logically correct.

The Foreign Language Teaching Certificate

In New York City, bilingual or ESL teachers, whose teaching experiences range from 3 years to 22 years, teach the Korean language classes. There are approximately 150 monolingual teachers, guidance counselors and administrators who have Korean ethnic background in New York City. However, there are only 10 Korean bilingual license holders according to the Chancellor's Report on the Education of English Language Learners. Of the eight Korean language teachers with regular New York City licenses, not one has a foreign language license in Korean.

In order to have a teaching license in the Korean Language, 36 credits in Korean and student teaching are required. As of September 2, 1999, for a provisional certificate, all candidates are required to pass the liberal arts and science (LAST) and the written assessment of teaching skills (ATS-W) portions of the New York State Teacher Certification Examinations (NYSTCE). For a permanent certificate, candidates are required to pass CST (Content Specialty Test) in the academic subject and ATS-P (Assessment of Teaching Skills Performance) tests. A New York City regular license is issued to individuals who possess New York State Certification and have successfully completed the NYC oral interview examination administered by the Office of Recruitment, Personnel Assessment and Licensing.

Curricular Issues and Teaching Methods

All Native Language Arts Curricula are being revised so that NLA classes will prepare the students to pass the English Language Arts Regents examination.

Therefore, NLA teachers use the ESL frameworks that are in alignment with the New Standards Performance Standards, and are intended for use across the disciplines by educators of English language learners. This is based on the research that if students are already literate in their native language, these skills will form a base for English literacy.

In the first edition of the New Standards Performance Standards for English Language Arts, several samples of student work in Spanish native language arts were illustrated. The Board of Education began with Spanish, since 86% of students in bilingual education program in New York City are Spanish speaking. The work samples are expected to be used in other native language arts classes as a basis for the work that lies ahead.

The role of native language arts classes is to prepare the ELL students to pass not only the English Regents test but also other Regents tests such as social studies or science. NLA instruction should be geared toward the acquisition of content-area knowledge. Teachers should develop strategies for teaching course content by drawing on student's basic communication skills such as writing strategies to enhance content learning; strategies for helping students read successfully in discipline based courses; and strategies for drawing on students' speaking and listening skills as a means to access content.

Content area subjects can be incorporated into NLA lessons in a variety of ways from short readings with comprehension activities to entire lessons or theme units. The aim of the lesson can focus on one or more of the content areas (e.g. How did the Russian Revolution influence Korea? or How does the way the Great Depression affected the characters in "The Grapes of Wrath" resemble and differ from the way the Depression affected people in New York City?) The important point is that the academic language necessary to express knowledge and ideas about the content area should be taught as part of the NLA lesson.

Recommendations

1. The discussion on the elimination of bilingual programs has always been a very controversial and political issue. The recurring theme has been debated nationwide. Such debates led to the passing of Proposition 227 in the state of California, which moved towards the elimination of bilingual education in that state. Other states are moving in that direction including the State of New York. There should be strong support for the Korean Native Language Arts programs in New York, which were instituted as a part of bilingual programs. As we have seen in the case of Styuvesant High School, organized efforts on the part of teachers, community leaders and parents are needed to create Korean foreign language classes in the elementary.

junior high, and high schools. Also more research should be done in the areas of language development of Korean ELL students.

2. Korean NLA students who have completed the three-year sequence with the Regents test should be waived in their foreign language requirement at the college level. There should be a program for these students to further develop their Native Language Skills when they move on to college.

3. A separate Korean LAB test that is designed to measure the skills of Korean NLA students should be developed. In New York City, the Spanish LAB test and Chinese Reading tests are administered to assess language abilities. This assessment is used to track student progress in native languages.

4. Korean NLA teachers need a series of textbooks that are aligned with city and state standards in English Language Arts. Such textbooks together with the teacher's editions or manuals should include language goals, literature and content-based materials and exercises that promote higher level critical thinking skills.

5. In order to have a foreign language teaching license, 36 college credits in Korean are required. College courses in Korean should be offered for the teachers and future teachers of the Korean language so that Korean language classes can be developed and promoted.

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Part IX

Error Analysis

An Analysis of Errors in Speaking Practice

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Introduction

Along with descriptive, contrastive analysis, error analysis or the study of learners' interlanguage, is an approach to problems associated with foreign language teaching and learning. Since I have been engaged in foreign language teaching, I have observed students' errors and attempted to correct them, but in a very sporadic way. One of reasons for my error analysis is so that I can correct errors effectively.

The purpose of this paper is to analyze errors American students of Korean made during their speaking practice with me, to monitor their learning stage, and ultimately to contribute any helpful data in the fields of teaching, curriculum development, and testing.

I have already analyzed errors of one student's speaking practice (Lee, Sang-il 2000), and this is its extension. This time the speaking practice was done during the months of August and September of 2000 with 12 students who were enrolled in the Defense Language Institute (DLI) Korean Basic course. They were all American military personnel in their late teens and early twenties, 3 females and 9 males. One dropped out of the class before graduation and 11 students took their final speaking test a month or two after the practice, and their official rating was between 1+ (Intermediate High by ACTFL scale) and 2+ (Advanced High by ACTFL scale). All 12 students were first time learners of Korean and none of them were heritage speakers. At the time of the speaking practice, students had received approximately 1350 hours of instruction.

To view their errors in the proper prospect in their learning process, I utilized the Interagency Language Roundtable Language Skill Level Descriptions (hence ILR) guide. The ILR is the standard by which speaking, listening, reading, and writing proficiencies are measured. It contains descriptions of six base levels of proficiency between 0 and 5 and + levels of proficiency. The content of the ILR can be conveniently divided into six categories: global tasks and functions, delivery, lexical control, structural control, text produced, and social/cultural appropriateness. Discussion of this paper will proceed according to these categories.

Notation

Underlined	errors
;	divider for different examples
↑	for the raised intonation. Students used it when they were not sure.
[..............]	An explanation to establish the context.
...... /......	divider between students' speaking portion and mine

(…………..) omitted portion in the examples

Global Tasks and Functions

This refers to what speakers can do with the target language. In the ILR, there are tasks and functions each level speaker can and cannot do. While level 0+ speaker can communicate only with telegraphic and memorized utterances, level 1 speaker can create with language, maintain simple conversations, and get through a basic survival situation. Level 2 speaker, on the other hand, can narrate in major time frames, describe, report facts, give directions, and deal effectively with an unanticipated complication. Level 3 speaker is someone who can discuss various topics extensively, support opinions, hypothesize, and deal with a linguistically unfamiliar situation.

However, tasks and functions I covered with students were very limited. For the fact that it was a speaking practice done in a limited time, topics were mainly students' background and daily routine. One exception was that I engaged in conversation with a student concerning politics, because his level was higher than others.

Delivery

Delivery refers to the speaker's phonological aspect such as his pronunciation, which includes pronunciation of each sound of the language and intonation, and fluency. In other word, delivery is how the speaker speaks. According to the ILR, level 0+ speakers "can usually differentiate most significant sounds when produced in isolation, but, when combined in words or groups of words, errors may be frequent," and for level 1 speaker his "pronunciation, stress, and intonation are generally poor, often heavily influenced by another language." On the other hand, for a level 1+ speaker, "pronunciation is understandable to natives used to dealing with foreigners. [He] can combine most significant sounds with reasonable comprehensibility, but has difficulty in producing certain sounds in certain positions or in certain combinations." However, a level 2+ speaker "is generally strong in either structural precision or vocabulary, but not in both. Weakness or unevenness in one of the foregoing, or in pronunciation, occasionally results in miscommunication."

In general, students spoke with different degree of fluency and confidence, but there were occasional miscommunications due to mispronunciation. The following are samples of pronunciation problem:

Mispronunciation of vowels and consonants: 중교 (for 종교); 혹사 (for 학사); 강군 (for 공군); 우으견 (for 의견); 아버니 (for 아버지); 농당 (for 농장).

Due to the CVCV syllable rule: 듣기화 (for 듣기와); 금와 은 (for 금과 은)

Missing a binding vowel: 가지 안면 (for 앉으면).

Problem with syllabification: 겨울레 (for 겨울에).

Problem with the liaison rule: pronounced the following as written: 재미있는 영화; 독립해 살고 싶어서…; 그걷에 (for 그것에) 대해서.

Variation: One student created an extra syllable: 토론을 보며는 (for 보면); 왜냐하며는 (for 왜냐하면) 그 토론을 보며는…; X 당을 지지하며는 (for 지지하면)...

Lexical Control

Lexical control is the range of vocabulary the speaker uses and its appropriateness. The 0+ speaker can only utter memorized words and phrases related to immediate survival needs, that is, according the ILR, "most utterances are telegraphic: that is, factors (linking words, markers, and the like) are omitted, confused, or distorted." Though the level 1 speaker can maintain very simple face-to-face conversations on familiar topics, his "vocabulary is inaccurate, and its range is very narrow." On the other hand, the level 2 speaker's "vocabulary use is appropriate for high-frequency utterances, but unusual or imprecise elsewhere."

Nouns

Independent Nouns: The following errors can be divided into various types:

Phonological and orthographical proximity: 히말리아 산택 (for 산맥)이에요↑

Phonological and semantical proximity: 건설↑ Architecture 건… /건축.

Semantical proximity: 삼개월 다음에 (for 후에) 만났어요; 어디서 태어나셨어요? / 제 어려운 문제 (for 질문)인데…; 각 당에 따라서 다른 의견↑ (for 정강) 있습니다.

Literal translation: 보고 보고자↑ Reporters, reporters↑ 보고자↑ (for 신문기자).

Simplification: 대학교를 다니고 학사 (학위)를 받았어요.

Word coinage: But this could be labeled as circumlocution, a communicative strategy employed by a level 2 speaker: 남자 먹는 사람 (for 식인종) 있어요; 제 어머님은 집부인 (for 가정주부)이라고 할 수 있어요↑

Though it depended on the topic and the speaker, one particular high level student managed to use high level vocabulary when we were talking about politics:

토론, 행동하다, 의견, 장점, 단점, 봉급 인상, 다짐하다, 사립학교, 사립교육, 교육제도, 확산, 예산, 빈곤층, 중산층, 부유층, 혁명, 지위, 사회층, etc.

Compound Nouns: The following example displays the difficulty of the composition of compound nouns and the placement of particles: 과학을 공부하고 흑사 (for 학사)를 학위 (for 학사학위를) 받았습니다.

Pronouns

Demonstrative Pronouns: The student may have forgotten the distinction between 그런 and 이런: 그런 (for 이런) 노란 것은 부소대장 있기 때문에 이기 때문에 그것을 입어야 합니다. The student was referring to the emblem on her uniform. But another student was able to recall the distinction between 저기 and 거기: 오랫동안 저기에 거기에 살고 있어서.

Numbers

For non-native Koreans, it is hard to use pure Korean and Sino-Korean numbers correctly with or without counter noun:

Use of Sino-Korean numbers in place of pure Korean numbers: 십이 (for 열두)... 살이었을 때에는; 사시 (for 네시) 반에 일어났고; 하루에 식사 삼 개 (for 세 번/세끼) 먹을 수 있습니다; 자동차로 한 이 삼 (for 두 세) 시간 걸렸어요.

Use of pure Korean numbers in place of Sino-Korean numbers: 열한 (for 십일) 년 됐어요; 한 (for 일) 개월 동안↑; 천 구백 육십 두 (for 이)년에.

The following examples show that students were struggling with proper number with proper counter noun, and proper word order: 우리 가족 네 명 사람이고; 오십 신발들이 (for 신발들이 오십 켤레) 있어요; 두 딸 (for 딸 둘) 태어났고...

Structural Control

Structural control is the speaker's accuracy and flexibility in using grammatical features of the language to produce appropriate sentences. It also refers to the speaker's ability to construct cohesive discourse. Some of elements included under this heading are: control of word order, grammatical markers, and coordinating and subordinating conjunctions, and so forth. For level 1 speakers, structural control is random or severely limited, errors in basic structures are obvious, and time concepts are vague. On the other hand, level 2 speakers can typically control simple structures and basic grammatical relations. However, in the commonly taught languages, areas of weakness are: simple markings such as plurals, articles, linking words, and negatives or more complex structures such as tense/aspect usage, case morphology, passive constructions, word order, and embedding. A level 3 speaker is someone who can effectively combine structure and vocabulary to convey meaning. His discourse is cohesive and errors occur in low frequency and highly complex structures, and his structural inaccuracy rarely hinders communication.

Singular/Plural: There is a mix-up of the use of singular and plural. This may create misunderstanding: 그렇지만 사람들이 강으로 내려갈 때 내려갔을 때 그 사람은 죽였어요↑... Congo rain forest 에 있는 사람들이 그 백인들을 I guess 살인했어요↑; 제가 다른 나라에 가고 싶습니다. 왜냐하면 다른 문화 No. I want to say. 다른 다른 사람에 대해서 배울 수 있고 신기한 것은 볼 수 있습니다.

Nominative Particles

-에서 was used after a place-name. Since –에서 is normally used after the place of occurrence with action verbs, the student might have thought that he must use –에서 after the place-name even though the verb used was not an action verb: San Jose 에서 (for 가) Silicon Valley 수도입니다↑

-을/를 was used with 필요하다, 있다 and another verb. However, regardless of kind of verbs used, errors may have been caused by the influence of the English sentence structure. In English in most cases, objects and verbs are close to each other. Note the proximity of nouns and verbs in the examples. Consequently nouns might have been taken as objects, since they are close to verbs: 저는 많은 연습을 (for 이) 필요해요; 말을 산 후에 큰 땅을 (for 이) 필요했어요; rain forest 많은 중독 중독인 동물들을 (for 이) 있고; 저는 천천히 말을 하라고 했기 후에 했는 후에 그 사람을 (for 이) 천천히 말해요.

-을/를 was used and then dropped as self-correction. A possible explanation is that the student might have been remembered the subject + 있다 construction: 컴퓨터하고 여러가지 기술 회사를 (for 가) 여러가지 기술 회사 ( ) 있어요.

The following could be an example of the influence of the noun + nominative particle + verb construction, as in 비가 와요: 이태리가 특별한 나라가 입니다 (for 나라입니다).

Objective Particles

이/가 was used. Just like the nominative particle cases, a possible reason for this switch might be the interference of English. While the primary English sentence structure is a subject followed by a predicate, a subject is understood in many Korean sentences. Therefore, the first noun was taken as a subject and a nominative particle was attached: 말이 (for 을) 산 (for 사기) 전에 거기에 샀어요 (for 살았어요); 많은 친구들이 (for 을) 잃어버렸어요; 그 좋은 점이 (for 을) 잊어버렸어요; 그 나라가 (for 를) 제일 좋아해요; 이런 날씨가 (for 를) 좋아합니다; 제 한국 이름이 (for 을) 제 오래된 선생님 만들었어요; 제가 (for 를) 행복하게 할 것이에요.

A possible explanation for the following errors is that this particular student learned 이름 and 이 together as a unit irrespective of its position in the sentence. A couple of times he tried the 이름은 construction, but he reverted to the 이름이 construction: 제 이름이 제 한국 *이름은* X 이고 미국 이름이 Y 입니다… /이 일병. 이름을 누가 지어주셨어요? /제 *이름은*? /네. /제 한국 이름이 제 오래된 선생님 만들었어요. 신 선생님 제 이름이 만들었어요… 민 citizen 의미 있지만 제 이름이 의미가 없어요. /의미가 없어요? 한자로 쓸 줄 아세요? /아니요. 우리가 우리 이름이 한자 받지 않아요. 받지 않았어요.

The following examples show that this student might have learned the pattern of …면 … subject + verb -지만 construction and fossilized it: 공화당에 있는 후보자를 투표하며는 보통 아주 큰 정부가 (for 를) 원하지만 그 정부가 (for 를) 확산하고 싶지만…; 민주당에 있는 후보자를 투표하며는 보통 그 정부가 (for 를) 작게 하고 싶은 사람이에요; 민주당을 지지하며는 그 보통 정부가 (for 를) 축소하고 싶습니다.

In case of the …는 것 construction, there is one example where nominative particle was used in place of objective particle: 거기서 소총 사격하고 응급치료하고 수류탄 던지는 것이 (for 을) 다 연습했습니다. However, in the following example, for the…는 것 construction, the particle was used right, but for the …을 것 construction, the particle was used wrong: 그래서 제 여동생들하고 여동생들한테 애기를 돌보는 것을 도와줄 것이 생각합니다. As for cases where particles other than the objective particle were required in the ...는 것 construction, either a particle was omitted or 이 was used: 한국말 배우는 것 재미있지만 아주 어려워요; 일하는 것이 많아요.

(으)로 was used, as in: 저는 종교으로 (for 를) 믿지 않아요. This is an isolated case which requires more data to give any explanation.

-에 was used: The following errors may be due to the interference of English. 기독교에 (for 를) 믿는 사람들이 Catholic 종교에 (for 를) 믿는 사람들하고 같이 싸웠는데; 정상을 등산한 후에 다른 정상에 (for 을) 쳐다볼 수 있어요. I believe the first error may have been influenced by English 'to believe in,' and the second by 'to look at.'

The following are good examples to demonstrate how a student was struggling with the objective particle: 제 친구을 전화을 얘기을면 제 아내는 아내을 만났습니다; 제 친구 제 호주인 친구 X 일병님이 저한테를 저한테 Y 들이 Z 를 아주 좋아한다고 말씀했어요.

Omission of -을/를 particle: First three examples can be understood without the objective particle, but the last one poses a potential misunderstanding because there is no particle, namely, without 를, 검사 and 훈련 might have been taken as a compound noun: 저는 Houston 시에 고등학교(를) 졸업했고; 예(를) 들면...; 부대원들 소대원들이 잘못하면 그 검사(를) 훈련이라고 하지만 punishment 있습 입니다.

Locative Particles

-이/가 was used. There is no plausible explanation as to why -이 was used instead of -에: 히말리야에서 I guess 돌아온 후에 Congo 강이 (for 에) 내려가고 싶...; 제 고향이 (for 에) 가지 안면 제 여자친구 집에 갔어요.

Mixed use of -에 and -에서: In case both -에 and -에서 refer to location, according to Martin (1992:294), "In general, -에 is used with certain adjective (of quantity/frequency) and a few verbs of stative meaning, such as 서- 'stand' 남- 'remain' 앉고 있- 'be sitting' 앉아 있- 'be seated'; -에서 is used in other cases, notably with verbs of activity. But certain verbs and adjectives are used with either -

에 or -에서." The following errors may be due to manifold usages of these particles: 제가 California 주의 중부에 (for 에서) 일어났고 아니 태어났고; 제 어머니…화학회사에 (for 에서) 일하고 있어요; Congo rain forest 에서 (for 에) …남자 먹는 사람 있어요↑; 제 고등학교는 Nevada 시에서 (for 에) 있어요.

The following examples show how much students tried to distinguish between -에 and -에서: 그래서 시간마다 박물관에서 에 가야 했어요; 컴퓨터 회사에 에서 근무하고 싶지 않아요; X 에서 X 에 많은 Y 들이 있고. Since the verb 살다 can take either -에 or -에서, students struggled between the two and once no particle was used: 우리 가족이 영국에 영국에서 샀어요 (for 살았어요); Dayton 시 (에/에서) 살았을 때 Dayton 시에 살았을 때…; 지금은 Texas 주 San Angelo 시 (에/에서) 계고 계고 있습니다 (for 살고 계십니다). Sometimes students simply did not use a particle at all: Mississippi 대학(에) 입학했습니다; Mississippi 대학(에서) 역사를 공부하고; Mississippi 대학(에서) 공부해야 해요; …대학교(에) 다니기 시작했어요. The following error is an interesting attempt of solving a conflict. The solution was to combine -에 and -로, since -에 is usually used after a place-name, and -로 with verbs with movement: 우리 가족원들 중에 어떤 사람들이 미국에로 (for -에/-으로) 오고 싶었어요.

-을/를 was used. The following is an isolated case: 선생님의 컴퓨터를 (for 에) 반도체 있어요.

Unnecessary Addition: 우리 여동생이 호주에서 여러 지역에서 사고 있어요. Here since 호주 and 여러 지역 function as a unit, the particle was not necessary. And in the following example, -이다 is not an action verb which requires locative particle: snack 회사이에요. 거기서 운전기사이었어요.

-에 in proportional usage: One of usages of -에 is proportional according to Martin et al (1967:1156-1157), as in 하루에 두번, 십년에 한번. The following example indicates that the student was trying to learn it: 그래서 미국이 전쟁할 때에는 우리 가족들 중에 각 세대로 각 세대에 한 두어 명이 미국 군대에 근무했어요.

Instrumental Particles

-을/를 was used: The student was struggling with particles in the first example, but the same student was able to recall the instrumental particle in the second example but with a wrong form: 제 친구을 전화을 얘기올면 제 아내는 아내을 만났습니다; 제 아내는 전화를 전화으로 (for 로) 만났습니다.

Omission of Particle: Just like the first case of the omission of the objective particle, the omission does not seem to impose hindrance in communication. According to Martin et al (1967:1283-1284), there are 10 usages of -(으)로 and the following examples show that students have not learned them: 제 어머니 백화점 manager (로) 계십니다; Computer analyst (로/로서) 일합니다 일하십니다; 우리가 우리 이름이 한자 (로) 받지 않아요; 고속도로 일(로) 간 후에 고속도로 백 일(로) 가야 합니다. It is most likely that –로 was not used in the following examples because the last syllable and the particle were either phonologically identical or very similar: 백 일 고속도로(로) 갔어요; 막사에서 무료(로) 살 수 있고…

Auxiliary Particles

Topical, inclusive, conjunctive/comitative particles are some of auxiliary particles. For the fact that there are many auxiliary particles in Korean, and that each one has multifunctions, it is not easy to master them. The following are intralingual errors of various auxiliary particles:

Topical Particle: The following examples show that students were struggling with this particle. Note that -은 and –도 are frequently confused with nominative and objective particles due to students' underlearning of syntactic and semantic properties of these delimiters and/or their rules of usage as pointed out by Sohn (1986: 514): 제 생각에는 Silicon Valley 에서 Apple Computers 하고 Microsoft 회사는 (for 를) 시작했어요; 사람들이 강으로 내려갈 때 내려갔을 때 그 사람은 (for 을) 죽였어요↑; 다른 다른 사람에 대해서 배울 수 (도) 있고 신기한 것은 (for 도) 볼 수 있습니다; 동생 /네. 어머니 동생? /구 일병 동생. /아. 네. 제가 (for 저는) 여동생 있어요. 그 동생은 지금은 중학교에 다니고 있어요. 우리 여동생은 열 두살↑ 되었어요. 다음 달에 제 여동생은 열 세살 되겠어요; 다른 다른 사람에 대해서 배울

수 (도) 있고 신기한 것은 (for 도) 볼 수 있습니다; 저도 군대에 있었어요. /그래요? /군대에서 X 년 Y 개월 있었어요. /한국에서는? /네. 한국에서.

Inclusive Particle: Sometimes –도 was used and sometimes not, and once it was combined with nominative particle: 구형 비행기(도) 있고 신형 비행기도 있습니다. 그리고 선물가게(도) 있습니다. 또 큰 영화(도) 볼 수 있습니다; 좋은 점(도) 있고 단점도 있다고 생각합니다; 주제(도) 중요하고 대답이도 (for 대답도) 어떻게 대답한지 중요한다고 생각해요. The following example displays that the student was struggling not only with inclusive particle but also the proper usage of locative particle as well: Amazon rain forest 에서 (for -에도) rain forest 에서도 (for -에도) 있어요.

-이 instead of –에 was used: -에 대답하다 is 'speak to' and –에 is required. The following example shows that the student needed to know this: 그 질문이 (for 에) 잘 대답할 수 없습니다.

Conjunctive/Comitative Particle: 얘기하다 takes –과/와 to yield the English 'to speak with someone.' The following example shows lack of this knowledge: 제 친구을 (for 와) 전화을 얘기을면 제 아내는 아내을 만났습니다.

Omission of Conjunctive/Comitative Particle: The student may not have used any particle at all in the following example either because he did not know which particle to use or because he was not aware that a particle was required: 그 친구가 부인을 소개했군요. /네. 맞아요. /그래서 부인하고 전화로 얘기했어요? /네. 그렇지만 그 다음 X 씨(하고) 얘기하자마자 제 친구하고 재민 여자이고 친절하는 여자 얘기했습니다.

Mixture of Particles

The following example shows that the student had problem with particles, because he was dealing with different usages of different particles in a compound sentence structure: 그 무슨 당에 따라서 그 정부 예산을 (for 에서) 군대 예산을 (for 으로) 어떤 불에 얼마나 돈을 주는지 따르겠습니다.

Some of Reasons for Errors in the Usage of Particles

First, there are so many usages for each particle. For example, Martin et al (1967: 1156-1157) list 11 usages for –에 and Martin (1992:496-497) 17. Secondly, many particles are associated with the same noun but with different meanings. For example,
-에, -에서, -(으)로, -부터, -까지, etc. are all associated with place noun but each one represents something different. Thirdly, since particles are placed in connection with sentence structure, mastery of the former depends on the latter, especially when one is dealing with compound/complex sentence structures. Fourthly, there is the interference of English in phonological, lexical, structural, semantic aspects. The following shows students' struggle with particles in compound/complex sentence structures: 그 대학교 저는 다니고 싶지 않지만 제 아버지가 그 대학교 저는 저를 다니고 싶어해요↑; 제 친구을 전화을 얘기울면 제 아내는 아내을 만났습니다; 그래서 제 여동생들하고 여동생들한테 애기를 돌보는 것읕 도와줄 것이 생각합니다; 예를 들면, 그 군대 정부가 아주 큰 부분이에요. 아니요. 아니요. 그 군대가 정부의 큰 부분이에요.

Adverbs

왜 and 왜냐하면 are related, because 왜냐하면 answers to 왜. Therefore, the following error was made, because the student lumped these two together and did not differentiate them: 왜냐하며는 (for 왜) 저 같은 후보자들은 저 같은 후보자이며는 왜 좋지 않다고 생각하십니까? Here 아직도 and 그래도 are semantically very similar. 아직/아직도 means '(not) yet, still, as yet' while 그래도 'even if, but, and yet.' Therefore, not using the proper adverb is understandable in the following example: 그래도 그 어떤 때에 좋은 후보자 없으면 아직도 (for 없어도) 투표할 책임 있기 때문에 아직도 (for 그래도) 정책에 관계 없이 투표해야 돼요. By the context in which 처음에 was used in the following example, it meant 'for the first time' but not 'quickly, at once' as intended: 실제로 쉽지 않지만 처음에 (for 얼핏) 생각하며는 쉬운 것 같지만 실제로 많이 생각해야 돼요. In the following example, 잠깐 means 'for a short time' but it actually means 'for a short moment,' so it was not appropriate: 제가 미국 Chicago 에서 태어나서 잠깐 (for 얼마) 후에 우리 가족이 호주로 이민 갔어요. The adverb 각각 was used in the following example to mean 'every' but it actually means 'every, each, separately': 고향에 자주 가세요? 주말에. /각각 주말에 (for 주말마다) 고향에 갔습니다. /각각 주말에? 무슨 말인데요? /every weekend.

Structurally, there seems to be some restrictions as to whether an adverb can take a particle or not, and if an adverb can take a particle, then the question is which adverb can take which particle. For example, 오늘은, 내일도, 모두가, etc. are possible, but not 매우는, 늘도, 같이가, etc. And even though 모두가 is possible, 모두도, 모두까지, 모두조차, etc. are not possible. The following are examples students were struggling with this issue: 매일은 지난 주일에 매일 올림픽 경기를 보고 봤을 때; 점점으로 (for 점점) 쉽게 할 수 있었습니다. In the following example, -에 referring to 'per' was misplaced: 그 다음 매주 다섯 번에 (for 매주에 다섯 번) X 씨한테 전화를 걸었어요. 걸었습니다.

Verbs

The following are interlingual errors which were caused by differences between learner's native language and the target language. Types of errors can be classified as follows:

Phonological proximity: Berkeley 로 인상했어요 (for 이사했어요); 시어머니의 아파트에서 막혔어요↑ 묵혔어요↑ /거기서 묵었어요?

Semantic proximity: 그런 노란 것은 부소대장 있기 때문에 이기 때문에 그것을 입어야 (for 닮아야) 합니다; 저의 우리 아버지가 제 이차 세계대전에 근무했어요 (for 참전하셨어요); 독립해 살고 싶어서 근무 (for 일) 도 해야 했어요; 자유가 작아졌어요 (for 줄어들었어요); 그 사람들이 다른 사람하고 말씀하지 않아요↑ 이야기하지 않아요 (for 소통하지 않아요); 정상을 등산한 (for 올라간) 후에 다른 정상에 쳐다볼 수 있어요↑; 제 다닌 대학교가 Bhutan 식 건축 건축으로 I guess 공사했어요↑ (for 지어졌어요); 대체로 유럽 생활방식이 relaxed ↑ 쉬다↑ (for 여유가 있습니다) Can it be used for relaxed?

Semantic and orthographical proximity: 우리 어머니는 아주 많은 애기를 낳어요 (for 낳으셨어요).

Literal translation which is the result of the interference of English: Sarah 는 약혼입니다 (for 약혼했습니다); 막사 검사를 해야 해요 (for 받아야 해요); 신형 기술을 많이 만들어요 (for 개발해요); 제 한국 이름이 제 오래된 선생님 만들었어요 (for 지어주셨어요); 그 대학교에 너무 많은 종교과목을 다니야 (for 택해야) 됐기 때문에 너무 어려워요; 여름 동안 더운 날씨 받고↑ 겨울 동안 추운 날씨 있고 눈이 와요. The verb 받다 in the last example must have been an English translation of 'to get,' as in "We get a hot weather in the summer."

Word coinage: 그 산택 (for 산맥)은 아주 아름답고 그 정상↑들이 아주 키가 큽니다↑ (for 높습니다).

Collocation (Idiomaticity): The following examples show students were struggling to learn Korean idiomatic expressions: 제 여동생들이 나이가 열 살하고 스무 살이에요. 먹었어요; 소대에서는 부대 분대장 위에 있지만 소대장 밑에 입니다. 일합니다; 군대에 군대를 (pause) 아이구 I guess 군인생활 (for 군대생활한) 후에 한국회사에서 근무하고 싶습니다; 제가 컴퓨터를 쓰지 못했기 때문에... 잘 못 이용하기 (for 사용하기) 때문에; 교육제도를 설치했지만 그 만들었지만 (for 실시하다).

Others: 회사가 은행 비슷하지만 그 회사가 집 loans 내렸어요. 내려요 (for 융자해요). Mortgage company. Mortgage 회사이에요.

Self-correction: 제가 California 주의 중부에 일어났고 아니 태어났고 Berkeley 로 인상했어요 (for 이사했어요); Computer engineer 전공하 공전? 전공합니다; 제 아버님하고 어머님은 반도체하고 같이 일해요. 반도체를 만들어요.

가다/오다: The speaking practice was conducted at school and the student was asked about his daily routine, and he used 가다 instead of 오다. This was an interference of English where 'to come' and 'to go' are used from the listener's point of view, as in 선생님께서 서울에 계시는 동안 서울에 가겠습니다. "I will come to Seoul while you are there.": 그리고 일곱시 반에 집합해야 합니다. 그 다음에 학교에 가야 하고 (for 와야 하고)...

이다/있다: Because both –이다 and 있다 converge into one English verb 'to be,' the confusion between the two is understandable: 제가 외 아들 있으니까 (for 이니까); 제 아버지 중령 있고 (for 이시고); 제 아버지 군인 있으니까 (for 이시니까).

The following examples show the struggle students went through: 우리 고향이 작은 도시이고 Massachusetts에 이니까 (for 있으니까); 제 이름은 X 있고 (for 이고) 제 한국 이름은 Y 입니다; 그런 노란 것은 부소대장 있기 때문에 이기 때문에 그것을 입어야 합니다; 부대원들 소대원들이 잘못하면 그 검사 훈련이라고 하지만 punishment 있습 입니다. Note that 있다 was changed to 이다 in this self-correction with one exception, and this coincides Jeyseon Lee's (2000:170-171) finding.

Conjunctive Verb Endings

In cases of -(으)면/-을 때 and -어서/-(으)니까, wrong conjunctive endings and correct ones are semantically related.

-(으)면-ㄹ/을 때: For the fact that both -(으)면 and -ㄹ/을 때 are translated into English 'when,' that is, they are semantically related, the following struggles and errors may have occurred: 저는 제 생각에는 한국 갈 때 가면 갈 때 저는 한국 갈 때 (for 한국에 가면) 많은 한국 사람 만났기 때문에 많은 사람하고 함께 이야기할 수 있고 한국말 잘 배울 수 있어요; 듣기가 왜 어려울까요? /왜 어려워요? 한국사람 너무 빨리 말하기 때문입니다. /그래요? 한국사람들이 너무 빨리... /그런데 저는 한국인 만날 때 만났을 때 (for 만나면) 그 사람한테 천천히 말하라고 해요. 말하라고 했어요; 저는 대학교 다니면 (for 다닐 때) 과학 과목을 공부하고 다른 과목을 공부하고 싶지 않아요; 제가 San Jose에 갈 때 (for 가면) 제가 제 친구하고 같이 많이 지내요. 그래서 제 친구하고 같이 지날 때 (for 지내면) 제 여동생은 거기에서 있어고 싶지 않아서 있어고 싶지 않아요? 그리고 제 친구하고 같이 나갈 때에 (for 나가면) 제 여동생은 늘 가고 싶어해요. 그렇지만 제가 안 데리고 싶어요.

-아/어서/-(으)니까: The following struggle is caused by the fact that both forms refer to English 'reason,' but their usages are somewhat different: 그렇지만 X 도 그 사립학교를 다니고 싶은 학생한테 정부 돈을 주고 싶기 때문에 주고 싶어하기 때문에 그것을 좋아하지 않서 좋아하지 아니까 좋아하지 아니까 (for 좋아하지 아니하니까) 좋은 점 있고 단점도 있다고 생각합니다.

-면: The following example demonstrates that a student was struggling with the –면 construction which indicates a condition: 저는 천천히 말을 하라고 했기 후에 했는 후에 (for 하면) 그 사람을 천천히 말해요.

The following are some of examples students had trouble with using appropriate conjunctive verb endings: 우리 아버지가 돌아가셔서 그렇지만 (for 돌아가셨지만) 우리 어머니 또 계세요; 공학을 공부해서 (for 하고) 졸업했어요; 우리 여동생들의 남편들이 다 아주 잘 일하고 있고 우리 여동생도 공부하고 (for 공부하고 있는데) 우리 어머니가 그 사람을 도와 주시면...; 오랫동안 저기에 거기에 살고 있어서 (for 살다가) 미국에 돌아왔어요; 저는 고향이 Minnesota 주 X 시이고 (for 인데) X 시 아름다운 호수 Superior 호수 옆에 있습니다; 우리 아들 ↑ T... K...이고 (for 인데)... 한국말 용특입니다; 그 TV 방송이 X 잘 했다고 말하고 그렇지만 (for 말했지만) 그 주제에 대해서 얘기하지 않습니다; X 에 많은 Y 들이 있고 (for 있는데) 그 Y 들이 Z 를 좋아하고.

The following are examples of self-correction: 검사할 때는 분대원들이 막사방 앞에 서고 서서 군대 검사하는 사람 군복을 보고 군복을 본 후에 막사방에서 막사방에 들어가서...

Adnominal Verb Endings

Literal translation: The transfer of English seems to be the cause of the following errors: 제 한국 이름이 제 오래된 (for 옛날/전에 있던 반의) 선생님 만들었어요. Here the English 'old' which also has the meaning of 'former' was translated into 오래된. Martin et al (1967:1162) lists 'several, many...' for 여러, and the student transferred 'many' into 많은 in the following example: 그런데 고등학교 전에 저는 많은 (for 여러) 도시에 살았어요.

Lexical: The following errors may have occurred because the student either did not know or forgot the precise form of the word: 그렇지만 그 다음 X 씨 얘기하자마자 제 친구하고 재민 (for 재미있는) 여자이고...

Structural: Students had trouble with the proper use of adnominal endings. In order to produce the correct form, students had to know several things: First, whether the verb was an action verb or an adjectival verb, etc. Second, which adnominal ending to take depending on tenses. Thirdly, whether the Korean verb and its English counterpart are both action verbs or both adjectival verbs: 친절하는 (for 친절한) 여자; 유명 (for 유명한) 대학; 분대원들 정열이 (for 정열한) 앞에서 서서; 확산↑맞은 (for 맞는) 말이에요?; 아주 아름답고 (for 아름다운) 도시에요; 그 공화당을 지지한 (for 지지하는) 사람들은 사회의 부유층에 있는 사람이고 그 민주당을 지지한 (for 지지하는) 사람들은 빈곤층에 있습니다. Note that the same student used 지지한 correctly, but 근무하는 incorrectly in the following example: 산업혁명을 했을 때에 공화당을 지지한 사람들은 그 사회에서 높은 지위↑ 있었지만 그 공장에서 근무하는 사람들은 민주당을 지지했습니다.

The following examples show that students are struggling with the proper use of adnominal endings associated with 때, especially in terms of tense: 저는 Massachusetts 주 살 때 산 때 (for 살았을 때) 어디 옆 살고 있는 사람 노인이니까 그 사람 마당 shovel 했어요. However, another student used the very construction correctly: 왜냐하면 Dayton 시 살았을 때 Dayton 시에 살았을 때 많은 친척들이 왔어요.

The following example implies that the correct use of 많이 and 많은 is not easy, because students may not be aware of their different parts of speech: 제가 에베레스트 산 등산하고 싶지만 에베레스트 산을 등산하기 위해서 많이 많은 돈이 있어야 해요.

Omitting: 저는 Houston 에 (있는) 고등학교 다녔어요; 저는 Houston 시에 (있는) 고등학교 졸업했고...

Irregular Verbs

ㄹ **irregular verbs**: 말이 산 전에 거기에 샀어요 (for 살았어요). 그렇지만 / 말이? /말을 산 후에 사기 전에 /말을 사기 전에 /말을 사기 전에 거기에 샀어요 (for 살았어요). 그렇지만 말을 산 후에 큰 땅을 필요했어요. This example is interesting for the fact that the student was using the two verbs (살다 and 사다) whose conjugations are very similar.

ㅂ **irregular verbs:** 군대생활이 어렵졌어요 (for 어려워졌어요); 그렇지만 제 생각에는 한국말 공부하는 것이 아주 어렵으니까 어렵니까 (for 어려우니까)...; 한국말 공부를 오래 했는데 한국말이 어때요? /그 다음에 한국말 아주 어렵지만 제가 많이 한국말을 공부했기 때문에 듣기화 읽기 I guess 쉽졌어요? (for 쉬워졌어요). Note that the student used the right conjugational form with –지만.

여 **irregular verbs**: 하다 verb was conjugated wrong: 왜냐하면 주말에 제 여자친구는 일하야 (for 일해야) 하면 제 고향에 갔습니다.

Tense Problem

Errors in connection with the use of conjunctive verb endings: Students had problem with the tense when conjunctive verb endings such as –면 and –고 were used: 저는 제 생각에는 한국 갈 때 가면 갈 때 저는 한국 갈 때 (for 한국에 가면) 많은 한국 사람 만났기 때문에 많은 사람하고 함께 이야기할 수 있고 한국말 잘 배울 수 있어요; 저는 천천히 말을 하라고 했기 후에 했는 후에 (for 하면) 그 사람을 천천히 말해요; T-shirt 사고 샀고 (for 사고) puzzle 샀고 (for 사고) 다른 이상한 것을 사세요.

Not using the present tense: One of usages of the present tense is for habitual occurrences, but a student used the past tense instead: 군복을 군대에서 줍니까? 그냥 주어요? 사야 돼요? /군복? /군복. /사야 돼요? /사야 돼요? Do I have to buy it? / 아니요. 군복을 무료 받았어요 (for 받아요).

Struggling with the tense for habitual occurrences: A student was describing his habitual weekend activities and he used the past tense most of the time but occasionally used the present tense: 고향에 자주 가세요? 주말에? /네. 각 주말에 갔습니다 (for 갑니다). /각각 주말에? 무슨 말인데요? /every weekend. /주말마

다. /주말마다 고향에 갔어요 (for 갑니다). /자동차 있어요? /네. /얼마나 걸려요? 여기서? /자동차로 한 이 삼 시간 걸렸어요 (for 걸려요). /어떻게 갑니까? 여기서? /자동차로. 여기 전에 백 일 고속도로 갔어요 (for 가요). … /네. 금문교 지나서 그 다음에 /다 고속도로 백 일 가야 합니다. /북쪽으로? /네. Santa Rosa 시까지 가야 합니다. 갔어요.

The following examples show that students did not use the past tense consistently and properly: 제 생각에는 그 대학교에 너무 많은 종교과목을 다니야 됐기 때문에 너무 어려워요 (for 어려웠어요); 그래서 대학교 생활 좋아하지 않기 (for 않았기) 때문에 저는 입대했어요; 저는 추럭 운전하는 때 뒤에 sand block 네개 가지고 갔어요. 그래서 운전할 수 있어요 (for 있었어요); 군대에 입대한 이유가 생활경험을 받았고 싶어요 (for 하고 싶었어요).

Self-Correction of the Present/Past Tense: 우리가 우리 이름이 한자 받지 않아요. 받지 않았어요; 그렇지만 사람들이 강으로 내려갈 때 내려갔을 때 그 사람은 죽였어요?

Problems with Various Grammar Patterns

-게 되다: 어른 됐을 때 Los Angeles 를 싫어 I guess 해 됐어요 (for 싫어하게 됐어요). This could be due to an incomplete learning of the –게 되다 pattern.

-고 싶다/싶어하다/원하다: The following errors may have been caused by semantic similarity of these verbs: 그래서 제 아버지는 저 제가 종교 믿고 싶어해요 (for 믿기를 원해요); 그래서 그 X 당을 지지하며는 그 보통 정부가 축소하고 싶습니다 (for 축소하기를 원합니다). The following examples are inaccurate use of –고 싶다, the first one structurally, and the second one semantically: 그리고 제 친구하고 같이 나갈 때에 제 여동생은 늘 가고 싶어해요. 그렇지만 제가 안 데리고 싶어요 (for 안 데리고 가고 싶어요); 그리고 제가 많이 말하면 [제가 말하기 연습을 많이 해서 한국말을 잘하면] I guess 군대에 군대를 (pause) 아이구 I guess 군인생활 후에 한국회사에서 근무하고 싶습니다 (for 근무할 수 있을 겁니다). Several times students raised the intonation at the end of the sentence [marked as ↑] to check if they were using the –고 싶다 construction right: 그 대학교 저는 다니고 싶지 않지만 제 아버지가 그 대학교 저는 저를 다니고 싶어해요↑; 제가 Congo 강 강 강으로 내려가고 싶습니다↑ /어디? 히말리야 정상에서? /네; 제 친구하고 같이 지날 때 제 여동생은 거기에서 있어고 싶지 않아서 있어고 싶지 않아요↑ And the following is an example of self-correction: 그렇지만 X 도 그 사립학교를 다니고 싶은 학생한테 정부 돈을 주고 싶기 때문에 주고 싶어하기 때문에…

-기 시작하다: 그래서 지금은 제 아버지 새로 은행 not 은행 회사가 시작하고 있어요 (for 회사에서 일하기 시작하셨어요). This may be an example of the interference of English 'starting with a new company.'

-기 전에: 말이 산 전에 (for 사기 전에) 거기에 샀어요. This may be a confusion between the –기 전에 and -은 후에 constructions.

-ㄴ/은지 ...되다: 그러면 이태리에 갔을 때 경험을 한번 얘기해보세요. 몇 년도에 어디에 갔는지? 가서 무엇을 했는지? 한 번 얘기해보세요. /이태리에 갔는지 (for 갔다온 지) 열한 년 됐어요.

- 밖에 안되다/-만 되다: 왜냐하면 제가 스물 한 살 되고 제 여동생은 열 두 살만 됐어요 (for 열 두 살밖에 안 됐어요). This error may be caused by the semantic similarity between the two constructions.

아니다/아니하다: X 도 그 사립학교를 다니고 싶은 학생한테 정부 돈을 주고 싶기 때문에 주고 싶어하기 때문에 그것을 좋아하지 않서 좋아하지 아니까 좋아하지 아니까 (for 좋아하지 아니하니까) 좋은 점 있고 단점도 있다고 생각합니다.

(아마) ...을 겁니다: 아마 이십 오년 이상 거기서 일했어요 (for 일했을 겁니다); 제가 아마 오십 신발들이 있습니다 (for 있을 겁니다); 제 생각에는 제 아버님은 이십 년 동안 일하고 제 어머님은 아마 십 오년 동안 일했어요 (for 일하셨을 겁니다). The following contains an inaccurate form: 그렇지만 이년 후에 다른 대학 다닐 게에요 (for 다닐 겁니다).

-아/어도 괜찮다/좋다/되다: 그리고 여름 동안 너무 더워요. 더운 날씨 받으면↑괜찮아요 (for 날씨가 더워도 괜찮아요); 그 어떤 때에 좋은 후보자 없으면 (for 없어도) 아직도 투표할 책임 있기 때문에 아직도 정책에 관게 없이 투표해야 돼요. This is a confusion between –어도 and –면.

–에 대해서: 그 보고 보고자↑Reporters. reporters? 보고자? /신문기자들이 . 신문기자. /신문기자들이 다른 곳을 I guess 다른 곳에 대해서 보고했어요? A self-correction was made here.

-에 따르면: 왜냐하면 가족 역사대로 (for 에 따르면) 미국에서 우리 식구들이 다 군대 경험 있어요; 후보자가 어떻게 대답하는 것이 잘 대답하는 것이라고 생각하세요? /아. 그럼. 들은 것에 따라서 (for 에 따르면) X 잘 대답했다고 말하고 어떤 사람들은 저한테 들은 것에 따라서 (for 에 따르면) X 가 제일 대답했다고 말하고... Note, however, that the student used the -에 따라서 correctly in the following: 그 무슨 당에 따라서 그 정부 예산을 군대 예산을 어떤 불에 얼마나 돈을 주는지 따르겠습니다; 각 당에 따라서 다른 의견↑있습니다.

-은 후에: 저는 천천히 말을 하라고 했기 후에 했는 후에 (for 한 후에) 그 사람을 천천히 말해요.

-을 때(에)/는데/는 때: Several occasions I thought I heard –는데, but by the context it was used, it might have been the mispronunciation of –는 때, and the last example supports my assumption. At any rate, the following examples contain errors related to –(을) 때(에): 저는 아기 있었는데/있었는 때 (for 아기였을 때) 제 아버지는 돌아갔습니다; 저는 추럭 운전하는데/하는 때 (for 운전할 때) 뒤에 sand block 네개 가지고 갔어요; 막사방 깨끗하게 할 수 있고 검사 막사방 검사하는데/검사하는 때 (for 검사할 때) 검사 필요할 때 검사하라고 할 수 있어요.

-지요: Not knowing or forgetting the proper usages of -지요 resulted in either copying the sentence ending I used or producing a wrong form or not using the -지요 ending: 그리고 여행할 수 있지요? 여행? /아마 여행할 수 있지요 (for 있을 겁니다); ... 여러가지 혜택이 많지요? /네. 혜택이 많지요 (for 많을 겁니다). Here students were talking about the future and they simply used –지요 ending instead of -을 겁니다, because they were misguided by my question which contained -지요. Other examples: 한자를 모르면 뜻을 잘 모릅니다. /물론이요 (for 물론이지요); 우리 어머니가 호주에서도 계세요. 그 분은 미국에 가끔 오셔 오지요 오시지요 (for 오세요); 그래서 금년에 용년입니다. 그래요? (for 금년이 용해이지요?).

Conjunctives

Wrong conjunctives usages: 그렇지만 밖에는 air con 이 없지요? /그렇게도 (for 그래도) 괜찮아요; 제 고향이 X 시입니다. 왜냐하면 육년 동안 살았어요. 그래서 (for 그런데) 제 친구들이 거기에 살고 있고...; 제 남동생 작년에 고등학교 졸업했어요. 그래서 금년에 대학에 다닙니다. 그리고 (for 그런데) 제 남동생 아주 똑똑합니다; 한번 그 박물관에 대해서 얘기해보세요. /조금 어려워요. 그렇지만 (for 그런데) 너무 많이 비행기들이 있습니다; 제 여동생 금년에 고등학교 시작했어요. 그래서 (for 그런데) 제 생각에는 너무 She thinks she is too old↑

Indirect Quotations

Students were struggling to produce right forms of quotations: 그렇지만 주제 중요하고 대답이도 어떻게 대답한지 (for 대답하느냐가 or 대답하느냐 하는 것이) 중요한다고 (for 중요하다고) 생각해요; 그 다음 X 씨 얘기하자마자 제 친구하고 재민 여자이고 친절하는 여자 (라고) 얘기했습니다↑ 제 친구하고 X 씨 전화번호 저한테 주세요 라고 (for 달라고) 했어요; 그렇지만 그 어떻게 용 아니고 뭐요 그 appearance↑ appearance 중요하지 않다고 생각해요.

Wrong Word Order:

Switching nouns, particles, and other elements: 작은 도시가 푸루지아 이름은 입니다 (for 작은 도시 이름은 푸루지아입니다); 제가 외 아들 있으니까 조금 보통 가족보다 달라요 (for 보통 가족보다는 /하고는 조금 달라요); 제가 남자 해군 물론이고 (for 물론 남자 해군이고) ...; 제가 그것을 잘 모르겠는데 그 때는 종교 Catholic↑ (for Catholic 종교) 종교 기독교에 (for 기독교 종교를) 믿는 사람

들이 **Catholic** 종교에 믿는 사람들하고 같이 싸웠는데 ...; 제 어머니만 하고 (for 제 어머니하고만) 같이 살았어요; 많이 눈 오면 (for 눈이 많이 오면) 학교에 갈 수 없어요; 그렇지만 너무 많이 비행기들이 (for 비행기들이 너무 많이) 있습니다; 십이 시간 동안 하루에 (for 하루에 열 두시간 동안) 일했어요.

Switching nouns with numbers and counter nouns: 저는 네 명 남동생하고 (for 남동생 네 명하고); 제 어머니 재혼한 후에 두 딸 (for 딸 둘) 태어났고; 제가 아마 오십 신발들이 (for 신발들이 오십켤레) 있습니다. These are cases of the interference of English, but the following example might be the result of wrong word grouping, that is, the student failed to group 일본 and 여자친구 together: 전에 일본 한 여자친구를 (for 한 일본 여자친구를) 만났습니다.

Text Produced

This refers to the type and length of discourse produced by the speaker. A level 0+ speaker can only produce individual words and phrases, and level 1 speakers can speak only in discrete sentences, but level 2 speakers can converse in full paragraphs and level 3 speaker in extended discourse.

Since the range of levels of students I had speaking practice with were between levels 1 and 2+, all of them could produce at least discrete sentences and used conjunctive verb endings and conjunctives, and some even attempted extended discourse in compound and complex sentence structures. However, as I have already demonstrated, students made errors in the usages of conjunctives and conjunctive verb endings.

Social/Cultural Appropriateness

This refers to what extent the speaker can use the target language appropriately in the social and cultural context, and understand cross-cultural communication. For levels 0+ and 1 speakers, sociolinguistic competence is severely limited. Level 1 speakers can only handle greetings and courtesy expressions, but level 2 speakers can satisfy routine social demands, and level 3 speaker can use cultural references.

In Korean the sociolinguistic aspect is reflected in the use of honorifics. The following examples show the difficulty students encountered:

Use and Non-use of Honorifics: 그 때는 우리 어머니가 (for 어머님께서) Los Angeles 로 이사했어요 (for 이사하셨어요); 제 아버지가 (for 아버님께서는) 제 생각에는 마흔 세 살 마흔 네 살이고 (for 이시고) Houston 에 계십니다; 지금 아버님은 뭘 하세요? /우리 아버지가 (for 아버님께서는) 돌아가셔서 그렇지만

우리 어머니 (for 어머님은) 또 계세요; 아버님 계시고 어머님도 계시고 오빠 나이가 스물 네살이고 쌍동이 언니도 있어요; 제 가족은 제 아버님하고 어머님하고 동생이라↑ 제 아버님은 P... G...이시고 제 어머님은 L... G...이십니다. 제 아버님은 공무원이시고 제 어머님은 도 공무원입니다 (for 이십니다)↑

Conclusion

This is a very sketchy picture of the developmental stage of 12 non-heritage students, and their errors can be assigned to each level prescribed in the ILR. Since I have treated 12 students as a group, this analysis reflect the learning process of the group, not for individuals, and since they learned from the same textbooks, this analysis would offer a chance to observe the correlation between student learning and curriculum.

There are so many types of errors, and causes and reasons behind errors are not always evident. However, as Lee W. R. (1983) advocated, systematic and global collections of errors are needed to guide learners effectively. His goal was to help learners by observing them closely and paying attention to their learning problems evidenced by their errors. Once errors are collected and analyzed, necessary step is to correct them. Error analysis without error correction defeats the original purpose of error analysis. After all, the merit of error analysis is to "get down to the pupils' level and see some of the difficulties through their eyes." (Lee W. R. 1983: 148).

As we must interpret errors in their proper linguistic and cultural context, we must teach language by the context. It is in the context we must teach language and find errors and correct them.

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An Error Analysis in Relation to Typological Differences

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Introduction

Korean word order is different from English word order. Korean is a SOV language whereas English is a SVO language (Subject, Verb, Object). Typologically, Korean is a left-branching language while English is a right-branching language. This means that an English relativized part comes after a noun, but a Korean equivalent to that comes before a noun. This also means that in complex English sentences, the subordinate conjunctions such as "because," "if," "before," etc. come in the first position in subordinate clauses while the Korean equivalents come in the last positions in subordinate clauses. The differences between the left-branching and right-branching give American students of Korean enormous difficulty. It seems that Korean learners of English have almost the same difficulty.

The purpose of this presentation is to describe the differences between the two languages to diagnose what kind of difficulty the students have and to suggest possible solutions to the problems.

Examples of typological differences:

(1) 이것이 *내가 어제 산* 차 다.

This is **the car** *I bought yesterday*.

(2) *졸업을 하려*면 공부를 열심히 해야한다.

If *you want to graduate,* you have to study hard.

(3) *그 사람은 매일 운동을 해*서 건강하다.

Because *he works out every day*, he is healthy.

Examples of Errors

A sentence with the present attributive form

Korean: 우리들은 한국 음식점이 있는 상가에 들어갔습니다.
English: We entered a shopping district where there was a Korean restaurant.
Korean sentence with students' common errors: *우리들은 상가가 있는 한국 음식점에 들어갔습니다.

A Sentence with the a past attributive form

Korean: 여기에서 머리를 깎은 군인이 은행으로 갔어요.
English: The soldier who had a haircut here went to the bank
Korean sentence with students' common errors: *여기에 군인이 머리 깎은 은행에 갔어요.

A Sentence with the future attributive form

Korean: 이것이 제가 부칠 편지입니다.
English: This is the letter I will send.
Korean sentence with students' common errors: *편지 부치를 있습니다.

Other complex sentences

(1) Korean: 눈이 오면 길이 미끄럽습니다.
English: When it snows, the roads are slippery.
Korean sentence with students' common errors: *길이 미끄럽으면 눈이 옵니다

(2) Korean: 월세가 너무 비싸서 세를 못 들어요.
English: Because it is too expensive, I cannot rent a room.
Korean sentence with students' common errors: *세를 못 들어서 월세를 너무 비싸요.

(3) Korean: 입대하기 전에 저는 대학생이었어요.
English: Before joining the army, I was a college student.
Korean sentence with students' common errors: *대학생이기 전에 입대했어요.

(4) Korean: 입대한 후에 한국말을 배웠어요.
English: After joining the army, I learned Korean.

Korean sentence with students' common errors: *한국말 배운 후에 입대했어요.

(5) Korean: 이 학교를 졸업할 때까지 한국말을 공부해야합니다.
English: I have to study Korean until I graduate from this school.
Korean sentence with errors: *한국말 공부할 때까지 이 학교 졸업해야합니다

Comparative sentence

Korean: 저는한국말보다 영어를 더 잘 해요.
English: I speak English better than Korean.
Korean sentence with students' common errors: *저는 영어보다 한국어를 더 잘 해요

As you have seen in the above examples, in complex sentences, the parts that modify nouns come before nouns in Korean, a left-branching language, whereas they come after nouns in English, a right-branching language. This means the word order of Korean is opposite to that of English. In comparative sentences, the noun that has a lesser degree comes before the word that indicates "than" in Korean, but it comes after "than" in English. The transfer from the students' native language, English, which has a word order opposite to that of Korean, seems to be the cause for the above errors. That is, the two languages are structurally quite distant. Consequently, we would expect more difficulty for speakers of such two languages learning each other's languages than for speakers of languages that branch the same way. It takes time for learners of different branching languages to process the language they learn. Odlin (1997) states that misinterpretation is expected when the branchings of a learner's native language and his target language are different.

My biggest concern as an instructor who teaches Korean to adult Americans is how to pull the switch to Korean. It appears that no one has suggested how to pull the trigger yet. It seems that the first step is to be aware of the grammatical patterns and the second step is to continue to use the patterns. I will introduce three exercises below. Exercise 1 and 2 are for awareness-raising and Exercise 3 is four-skills integration as an example of the method to become familiar with the patterns in a meaningful way. Four-skills integration facilitates language learning because listening, speaking, reading, and writing are all interrelated.

Exercises

Exercise 1. Underline the parts that are equivalent to "than," "if," and "until," and the present attributive form of verbs also.

(1) 사우나 잘 하면 보약보다 낫다.

하루의 피로를 풀 수 있는 유일한 사우나.

(2) 집 사실 분 원하시는 집 꼭 찾아드립니다.
집 파실 분 연락 주세요. 집이 팔릴 때까지 단독 광고 내 드립니다.
24 시간 언제나 도와드리는 앤킴을 찾아 주십시오.

Completed **Exercise 1**

(1) 사우나 잘 하면 보약보다 낫다.
하루의 피로를 풀 수 있는 유일한 사우나.

(2) 집 사실 분 원하시는 집 꼭 찾아드립니다.
집 파실 분 연락 주세요. 집이 팔릴 때까지 단독 광고 내 드립니다.
24 시간 언제나 도와드리는 앤킴을 찾아 주십시오.

Exercise 2. Underline the parts that are equivalent to "because," "after," and "before," and the past and future attributive forms of verbs also.

(1) 집 사실 분 원하시는 집 꼭 찾아드립니다.
집 파실 분 연락 주세요. 집이 팔릴 때까지 단독 광고 내 드립니다.

(2) 윌리엄 하크라이더라고 하는 사람이 자기집 잔디를 깎는 작업 중에 그만 브레이크를 밟아서 길가의 자동차를 들이 받았다. 이 사고로 윌리엄은 기계에 자신의 무릎을 베었고 엉뚱하게도 사고 현장에 온 경찰은 그를 음주운전으로 기소하였다.

(3) 많은 셀러들이 집을 팔기 전 어떤 수리도 하지 않으려 한다. 그러나 지혜로운 셀러들은 전문가를 통한 하자 조사 보고서 이외에도 몇몇 조사 보고서를 받아 그 제안대로 수리한 후에 매물로 내어 놓는다.

Completed **Exercise 2**

(1) 집 사실 분 원하시는 집 꼭 찾아드립니다.
집 파실 분 연락 주세요. 집이 팔릴 때까지 단독 광고 내 드립니다.

(2) 윌리엄 하크라이더라고 하는 사람이 자기집 잔디를 깎는 작업 중에 그만

브레이크를 밟아서 길가의 자동차를 들이 받았다. 이 사고로 윌리엄은 기계에 자신의 무릎을 베었고 엉뚱하게도 사고 현장에 온 경찰은 그를 음주운전으로 기소하였다.

(3) 많은 셀러들이 집을 팔기 전 어떤 수리도 하지 않으려 한다. 그러나 지혜로운
셀러들은 전문가를 통한 하자 조사 보고서 이에도 몇몇 조사 보고서를 받아 그 제안 대로 수리한 후에 매물로 내어 놓는다.

Exercise 3. Listen to the following passage, and follow the directions below.

매일 운동하는 사람은 12%에 불과
저녁 시간보다 새벽 시간 운동이 많아
여성에겐 살빼기 효과도 중요 관심사
69%가 스포츠로 일상대화 소재로 삼아

(1) 선생님이 읽은 것이 무엇에 대한 것인지 짝과 함께 의논해 보십시오.

(2) 십이프로는 무엇을 나타냅니까?

(3) 사람들이 언제 운동을 더 많이 합니까?

(4) 만일 사람이 운동을 하지 않으면 어떻게 될까요?

(5) 건강을 위해 무엇을 하는지 짝과 애기해 보십시오.

(6) 짝의 애기를 써 보십시오.

(7) 짝이 쓴 자기 얘기를 읽어보고 맞게 썼는지 알아 보십시오. 틀린 부분이 있으면, 짝에게 다시 애기해 주어서 고치도록 하십시오.

(8) 자기가 쓴 것을 반 전체에게 발표해 보십시오.

Conclusion

I described the typological differences between Korean and English and presented several examples of errors which American learners of Korean have made. There are many more examples of such errors. If language teachers take a close look

at their students' errors, they can find patterns of their errors. After that, they have to think of ways to prevent or reduce them. Regarding the above-mentioned typological errors, I introduced two exercises to raise students' consciousness of the correct word order and one exercise for four-skills integration. Nonetheless, being exposed to grammar patterns or practicing them once or twice is not enough. They should be continuously rehearsed through a variety of activities until they become the learner's own possession (Yalden, 1987). However, after they seem to have become the learner's possession, they are sometimes forgotten. If so, the learners have to retrieve them through rehearsals.

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Part X

Issues Regarding Heritage Learners

Issues of Heritage Learners in Korean Language Classes

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Heritage learners in Korean as a Foreign Language (KFL) classes rarely go beyond their current level of Korean and continue to make the same errors regardless of explicit instruction and negative feedback. They have the tendency to demonstrate weaknesses in grammatical accuracy, despite the high-level receptive comprehension skills and communicative fluency. Thus, the purpose of this study is to first identify common errors among Korean heritage learners and analyze them from the sociolinguistic perspective. Then I will discuss some pedagogical implications that could be implemented in KFL classes.

BACKGROUND

The Korean immigration history in the US consists of three waves of immigration: the first wave was between 1903-1905, the second wave was from 1951 to 1964, and the last one was from 1965 and subsequent years. The majority of the first-wave immigrants came as laborers to work at the Hawaiian sugar plantations. In contrast to the Japanese and Chinese settlers from abroad, whose involvement with the Christian faith had been rather insignificant, the Korean immigrants in Hawaii were extensively involved in Christian churches. As a result, even to this day, the Korean churches in the US have served the Korean immigrant communities as social, political, cultural and religious centers.

The division of Korea after World War II led many Koreans to emigrate to the US, which were known as the second-wave immigrations. Among them were political refugees, war orphans, and war brides and their dependents. For example, about 13,000 Korean orphans were adopted by American families between 1955 and 1977. Furthermore, over 28,000 Korean wives of American servicemen immigrated to the US between 1950 and 1975. The impetus for the third wave of Korean immigration was the US Immigration Act of 1965, which heavily favored family reunion, giving preferential treatment to spouses, children, parents, and siblings of permanent residents or US citizens. A high proportion of the recent immigrants, both male and female were well educated and completed a college education in Korea prior to emigration. Moreover, most of the Korean males had been employed in white-collar occupations in Korea.

By 1979, more than 70% of the Korean families in Los Angeles had at least one child in their family. Therefore, the maintenance of the Korean language and education for their children were or should have been matters of great concern for most Korean immigrant parents. It was apparent that as children progressed and adapted to the American school rather quickly at the same time, they were rapidly losing the Korean language and cultural traits that their parents wanted them to continue to learn and maintain.

In efforts to maintain the language, the Korean community, such as Korean churches, Korean language schools, public schools with Korean bilingual education programs, and the Korean language mass media, has established weekend schools, which was held either on Saturday or Sunday in addition to other programs. Unfortunately, these efforts have not been as effective as they should be. One reason is children's low motivation in learning and maintaining their heritage language, which stems from the constant pressure and conflicting signals that they receive from both home and outside of home. That is, outside of home, the children never feel like they are fully accepted by the mainstream society, and at home they are frequently told that excessive Americanization is regarded as moral decadence by their parents. At a young age, such pressures lead them to abandon their ethnic language and background, for they are more strongly influenced by the school, society, and their peers. Moreover, the parents of these children, eventually and sometimes reluctantly support this choice of being more Americanized in order to prevent their children from being discriminated against and marginalized by the society. Thus, the permanent maintenance of the Korean language as well as other ethnic languages now appears to be an unrealistic goal even within a well-bounded ethnic community.

Today, many of the younger generations of the Korean Americans described above are not children anymore, but young adults who are already entering, if not ready to enter, the real world of American society. Although many of them may be considered bilingual or bicultural, almost all of them, with few exceptions, are *English-dominant* "bilinguals." In other words, the only time they have to use Korean is with their parents. Thus, listening skills are fairly well developed. However, when it comes to communicative skills, only rudimentary syntax and vocabulary ("foreigner talk") are used. The level of communication between an adult Korean-American and his or her parents is often exactly the same as that of a five-year old child, if not worse. That is, for many of the young Korean-Americans who are now in their early 20s, there will never be a day when they will be able to carry on a meaningful, intellectual conversation with their parents. The linguistic predicament which Korean-Americans and their parents find themselves in now is that neither Korean nor English can be used to express one another's deep, inner, feelings. These are a few of the many pains and struggles that the Korean immigrant families are faced with.

ISSUES OF KOREAN HERITAGE LEARNERS

Fortunately, we now live in a time when many of the 1.5 and second generations of immigrants have opportunities to learn their own ethnic language at universities, and in some cases even at high schools. Thus, upon entering colleages, many Korean-Americans enroll in beginning Korean with the hope of learning it for the first time or to increase their language competence to the level where they could engage in adult-like conversations with their parents, relatives or even their friends, among many other objectives.

For all language teachers, coping with the many differences between students' learning styles is one of the many challenges. However, many Korean language teachers face a bigger challenge today, for not only do they have to cope with different learning styles, but also have to deal with the two distinct levels between the heritage (Korean-American) learners and the non-heritage learners. In this paper, 'heritage' learners will only refer to the Korean-Americans whose mother or both parents are native Korean immigrants to the US. Furthermore, these 'heritage' learners are those who have been significantly exposed to natural input in which Korean was spoken by their parent(s) and/or other native speakers of Korean.

Typically, in a foreign language class, one would expect to see more non-heritage learners than heritage learners. However, in many less commonly taught languages, and especially Korean language classes, it is not uncommon to have more heritage learners than non-heritage learners, although there may be resional variations. For example, in areas where there is a large Korean population, such as Hawaii, Los Angeles or New York, one can easily see a Korean language class where almost all of the students are heritage learners.

Apparently, this complicates the issue once again, in that within the heritage learners, there is yet another set of problems due to the extent and types of exposure to the Korean language and culture that they have had at home.

Consequently, in the classroom where there are an equal number of heritage learners and non-heritage learners, both groups suffer. In other words, they learn at a level that is not appropriate for either of them and hence don't improve or learn as much as they should. In short, for the heritage learners, they are not learning enough while the non-heritage learners are learning too much too fast.

In order to investigate this critical issue, I have collected spoken and written data of heritage learners to find out if common errors and difficulties exist and if they do, how are they different from those of non-heritage learners. Furthermore, in this paper, I will also analyze the result of the data in comparison to the findings of the French immersion program, which has been one of the most successful second language teaching experiments reported in the literature. Finally, based on the analysis, I will discuss some pedagogical implications that could be considered for a more efficient KFL class.

DATA COLLECTION

Subjects and Method

The subjects for the study were 15 heritage learners and three non-heritage learners from the Intermediate-level Korean language classes at University of Hawaii at Manoa (Korean 201, 202) and eight middle school learners from Korean Saturday School.

Based on my experience as a KFL teacher for the past three years, I have been noticing and struggling with the unbalanced problem of heritage learners' low-level productive skills with respect to grammatical competence which are far from being native-like in comparison to their high-level, sometimes native-like, listening skills. Therefore, only spoken and written data were collected with the assumption that comprehension skills of heritage learners are well-developed.

For the spoken data (s), the subjects were shown a clip of a Korean comedy sitcom (순풍산부인과) which lasted approximately 2 minutes and then were asked to describe what they just saw. Their utterance was audio-taped and then transcribed.

For the written data (w), the 10 learners of Korean 201 were asked to write a one-page composition about a "Most memorable trip."

Results and Analysis

According to Sohn (1999), the Korean language consists of six speech levels based on the speaker-addressee perspective: e.g. declarative-sentence enders such as deferential level *-(su)pnita*, polite level *-e.yo* or *-a.yo*, blunt level *-so* or *-o*, familiar level *-ney*, intimate level *-e* or *-a*, and plain level *-ta*. (1999: 17). That is, because Korean is a language that has different forms of honorifics (speech levels), a speaker's approximate knowledge of his or her social relationship with the addressee and referent (in terms of age, social status, kinship, in- or out-groupness, and speech act situation) is needed in order to communicate appropriately (1999: 17).

Although non-heritage learners come into class without this knowledge, the heritage learners on the other hand are already familiar with at least one, and at the most two, of the six levels. For most of the heritage learners, their exposure to Korean is only from home, particularly their parent(s). Thus, the speech level they have been most exposed to since their childhood is the intimate level *-e* or *a*. Consequently, in learning other speech levels, heritage learners tend to revert to the intimate speech style when constructing sentences that require different speech levels. Some of the examples of errors that derive from intimate speech are:

(1) a. 어뜬 여자하고 남자가 같이...안즈고* 있었는데 (앉고) (spoken)
b. 저 테레비 봐니까* (보니까) (s)
c. 사진 안 봐고 싶어요*. (보고 싶어요) (s)
d. 창피해 사진* 빼스고... (창피한 사진) (s)
e. 학교에 왑니다.* (옵니다)

Instead of using the verb stem (dictionary) form with a required inflectional suffix, heritage learners make the error of resorting to the intimate speech form, a form that has already undergone conjugation. For example, in 1b, the student used the conjugated form *poa* (which is derived from the stem *po* + intimate level *a*) instead of the correct, stem form *po* with the suffix *(u)nikka*. Similarly, in 1d, since the intimate form of *changphihata*, to be embarrassed, is *changphihae*, the learner directly transfers it to the noun modifier (*n/un* + noun), which results in an error. Because the heritage learners cannot seem to grasp the concept of the verb stem (dictionary form), they consistently make the error with other conjugations, especially the deferential-level form *-(s)upnita* as shown in example 1e.

Heritage learners' another error that non-heritage learners do not make is their indiscriminate, casual pronunciation of certain syllables such as -gwu instead of *-go* and *-lwu* instead of *-lo*. This again is rooted in the heritage learner's exposure to the spoken language at home:

(2) a. 소파 밑이루* 떠러졌데요. (밑에로) (s)
b. 기다리 하면서* um.. 담배피구*... (담배피우고) (s)
c. 이부구* 머싰었요* (예쁘고 멋있었어요) (written)
d. 한국에 있는 가정 보구* 한국 음식도 많이... (보고) (w)

Although this could be accepted in colloquial speech (as in examples 2a, 2b), it becomes an error when it is transferred to the written modality (examples 2c, 2d). The habit of "writing as it sounds," tends to be most critical among the heritage learners. In addition, despite the explicit negative feedback on their composition as well as assigning them to re-write with corrections, this particular habit seems almost impossible to correct. Some of the examples from the written data are as follows:

(3) a. 어런수대* 우리 가 밧는데* 별로 재미없었어요. (어렸을 때, 봤는데) (w)

b. 장년 방악* 데 LA 구경갓다*. (작년 방학 때, 구경갔다) (w)

c. 내가 체일* 초아했는* 여행이 학교 초롭한* 에들이랑* 가리포니아 갔는* 여행이 아주 체미있었어요*. (제일, 좋아했던, 졸업한 애들이랑, 간, 재미있었어요) (w)

Through the written data, one can see that heritage learners make the same errors as those of the spoken data, for they write as they would speak. However for non-heritage learners it is the other way around, in that they usually speak as they would write. Therefor, the errors between heritage and non-heritage learners differ. From the pedagogical perspective then, written data could be an important guide and insight of the learner's interlanguage. In other words, written assignments could be helpful for teachers to not only identify consistent errors among heritage learners (and non-heritage learners) but to also keep track of each learner's progress in general.

Yet another habitual error by heritage learners, which only appeared in the written data, is their tendency to repeatedly use only *one* particular embedded-clause ender (4a, 4b) or sentence ender (4c) throughout their utterance such as -고(구); -는데; -데요; etc., and/or conjunctive particles (4c, 4d) such as 그런데 (근데); 그럼; 그래서; etc. regardless of its actual function:

(4) a. 집에를 들어와갔구..갑자기 귀가리 떨어져갔구 그 몸이 좋은 사람이 소파를 들었어요. 한손으루 하구* 몸을 자랑해갔구 애들이 그냥 멋있다구*. (s)
  b. 사람들이 방에 앉아있는데 친구들이 들어오고 근데...한 친구는 귀고리를 잊어버려가지구 뭐 밑에 있는데* 의자가 무거워서 같이 들을려그랬는데.. (s)
  c. 어뜬 아즘마가 귀고리 하나 잊어버렸는데요*..소파 밑에루 떠러겼데요*. 그러데 어떤 아저씨가 한 손으로 소파를....밀었데요*. 그런데 아즘마가 귀고리 찾았데요*. 긴데 친구들이 다 “rambo” 이름 부렀데요* 아저씨한테. (s)
  d. 사진 피업으루 갔어요. 그럼* 김씨는 어, 걱정 말, 말에요..../ 사진 안 바고싶어요. 그럼* 어 김씨아저씨 드르가구요.....사진 다 던졌어요. 그럼* 어, 어떤 사진아 뺐었어요. (s)

In contrast to the repetitive use of one form, heritage learners shows their weakness in grammar accuracy by their inconsistent use of the particles (5a, 5b) and/or sentence enders (5a, 5c). In other words, from their prior implicit exposure of grammatical forms such as particles, heritage learners “fish around” or guess when it comes to constructing a sentence or utterance requiring those forms.

(5) a. 친구에* 왔습니다...친구에(의) earring가* 떨어졌어요. 그런데 찾았군요*.
  ...그 남자가 그 소파이* rise up and then....그런데 이 두 여자가 그 남자가 body가* 보면* ‘와’ 했어요. (s)
  b. 샌호새를* 추워고* 하와이 보다 안 예뻤어요..본토가* 차를* 필려하고 버스를* 별로 없었어요. (w)
  c. 친구들이 왔어요. 그리고 소파에서 앉있는데요. 친구가 귀고리가

소파 안에 잊어버렸습니다.

Moreover, within particles, many heritage learners overuse one over the other. For example, for the subject nominative particle *i/ka*, the choice between the two depends on its phonological environment in that *-i* is used after a consonant and *-ka* is used after a vowel. However, the heritage learners have a tendency to use *ka* regardless of its phonological environment and despite the grammar instruction.

(6) a. 이 사람가* 이름가* 뭐죠? (s)
b. 오씨가 사진가* 도로 두 드렸어요. (s)

Although not found in the data, heritage learners also commonly make the error of using both *i* and *ka* as a nominative particle. (e.g. 사람이가* 많아요)

Lastly, according to both written and spoken data, the misuse of the verb *hata* (to do) among heritage learners was salient. For instance, learners made the error of constructing a sentence with the dictionary form + *hata* (7a, 7b, 7c) or would simply replace a particular verb with *hata*. (7c, 7d)

(7) a. 사진을 맡기다 했어요*. (s)
b. 십칠분 오후 기다 기다리 했어요*. (s)
c. 싸진을 했느데*...../ 그리고 김씨하고 오씨는 싸우했어요*. 그런데, 사진을 어, floor에 fell down 했어요*. (s)
d. 비행기에는 잠을 많이 했어요*. (w)

This type of error, however, also occurred in one piece of the data injvolving a non-heritage learner (7c). Even though there are enough explanations and rationale to claim that the type of errors mentioned above are indeed more common among heritage learners than non-heritage learners, as for the misuse of the verb *hata* (to do), it is difficult to make the same claim due to the small amount of data from non-heritage learners. Therefore, one can say that this particular error is common in both heritage and non-heritage learners.

The errors of the three non-heritage learners from the spoken data, were lexical errors such as 주소합니다* (죄송합니다); misuse of the passive verb 보이는데* (보고 있는데); pronunciation errors like 탑탑해서* (답답해서); and conjugation/ overgeneralization errors such as 받기 하고* 싶지 않았어요 (받고 싶지 않았어요) and 받기* 후에 (받은 후에). As mentioned earlier, although the data sample of the non-heritage learners was relatively small, errors transferred from the intimate speech style, inconsistent use of particles or sentence enders, or a habitual use of one particular embedded clause ender were not evident in the data of non-heritage learners. This observation, however, is yet to be more closely researched by collecting comparable data of non-heritage learners of the Korean language.

DISCUSSION

Given the analysis of the data, the question as to why the productive skills of the heritage learners fall considerably behind their comprehension skills still remains. Studies from naturalistic acquisition have shown that "prolonged natural exposure tends to stabilize prematurely, failing to incorporate grammatical structures" despite the high frequency of input and plenty of opportunity to do so (Long, 1997:156).

This is true in the case of heritage learners in that they have had "prolonged natural exposure" from their parents from the day they were born, and particularly only one type of speech level (intimate) out of the six. Thus, one hypothesis to explain why heritage learners display many and consistent grammatical errors in their Korean might be that once heritage learners have developed a level of proficiency (at a fairly young age) that allows them to communicate and be understood by each other and their parents, the social motivation to go beyond their level stops (Swain, 1978, 1991), which ultimately prematurely stabilizes or perhaps fossilizes their interlanguage. This may explain why the proficiency level of many Korean-Americans does not go beyond the level of a five-year old. Furthermore, it is noteworthy to point out here the sad and common phenomenon for Korean immigrant families in which parents and children comprehend each other, but do not have sufficient oral fluency to communicate properly, which most likely have contributed to heritage learner's fossilization otherwise known as semilingualism.

In his article *The Acquisition of English and Ethnic Language Attrition: Implications for Research*, Michael A. Power points out the conditions of "the non-acquisition or attrition of the ethnic languages of children of immigrant families" (Power, 1996:1). He gives an example of such a case in which a Korean father who learns English wanting to communicate with his children, both of whom speak practically no Korean. For the two children, Korean was acquired in early childhood, but was lost soon after starting school. Power is reluctant to make a generalization from this recurring pattern of monolingual Korean-language parents with monolingual English children. Unfortunately, however, this is the Korean-Americans' typical pattern today. That is, in a discourse between a Korean parent and a Korean-American child whose receptive skills are good enouch to understand one another, it is typical to see the parents speaking to them in Korean while the children respond in English. Thus, this two-language communication not only has contributed to their semilingualism, but has also robbed of the opportunity to develop the productive skills.

Similar to the findings of heritage learners, there is further evidence from research findings from one of the most successful experiments and large-scale evaluations, the Canadian French Immersion Programme. According to Krashen, the French immersion is "the most successful programme ever recorded in the professional language-teaching literature." (Krashen, 1984:61) However, many criticisms have been given in respect to learners' grammar inaccuracy in that their productive skills remain far from native-like when in fact they have attained levels of receptive skills comparable to native speakers. Swain (1985) argues that one important reason why immersion learners demonstrate numerous grammatical errors in their L2 is that they lack in engagement of language *production.* "This characteristic of their language-learning environment may prevent them from going beyond their current level of L2 proficiency" (Izumi et al, 1999: 422).

Thus, Swain (1991) and others (Salomone, 1992) have conducted classroom observations to investigate the student-teacher interactions in French immersion classrooms. Results of the observation illustrated the limited output of the learners due to the teacher's failure to create opportunities for learners to observe and systematically use forms and functions of the language in a meaningful situation. Aside from the limited opportunities to speak in class, when there was output by the learners, the feedback they received was more likely to be content-focused rather than language-focused and thus teachers were consistent in providing *inconsistent* negative feedback to the learner's language errors. Swain argues that by giving inconsistent or no feedback to the learner regarding the extent to which their messages have successfully been conveyed, the teacher takes away the opportunity to force the learner to "move from semantic processing to morphosyntactic processing" (Swain, 1991:98).

Despite the different language-learning environments, one can easily see the parallelism between the teacher-student interaction from the immersion program and parent-child interaction of Korean-Americans discussed above. In other words, from the natural exposure that the heritage learners have received since their childhood, it could be assumed that there was inconsistent or no feedback from their parents to their child's Korean.

Hence, according to Long (1983), "A pure focus on meaning has been shown to be *inefficient* by comparisons which find great advantages for learners who receive formal instruction of various kinds" (Long, 1997:156). He further suggests that such learners do not simply *notice*, in Schmidt's sense (Schimdt, 1990), items from the input as well as the output. According to Schmidt & Frota (1986), two kinds of noticing are necessary conditions for acquisition: (1) Learners must attend to linguistic features of the input that they are exposed to, without which input cannot become 'intake'; (2) Learners must *notice the gap*, i.e. make comparisons between the current state of their developing linguistic system, as realized in their output, and the target language system, available as input. Assuming that this is true, then one can generalize that errors of heritage learners (and non-heritage learners, for that matter) derive from their failure to *notice* the linguistic items of the input and more importantly, their failure to *notice the gap* in their output.

PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS

As can be seen from the discussion section, the role of noticing by the learners, and especially heritage learners, could be the key to promoting greater accuracy in the production of Korean heritage learners. However, it is also as important, if not more important, for the teachers to be first aware of the differences between the heritage and non-heritage learner's interlanguage to notice the learner's gap. As mentioned earlier, one way of finding out the interlanguage of a heritage learner is by collecting written data. This way, teachers can plan ahead as to which form and structure requires focus as well as explicit (or implicit) negative feedback.

Second, it is crucial for teachers to provide heritage learners explicit or implicit negative feedback that is consistent and provide them with opportunities to notice or pay attention to not only the integration of the meaning and function of the language, but especially to the *form* in which heritage learners show their greatest weakness, as shown by the data presented above. This leads to the question of what type of feedback would be most efficient for heritage learners. According to Doughty & Williams (1998), combinations or variety of feedback are likely to be most useful. Some proven combinations are "promoting perceptual salience (Sharwood-Smith, 1991, 1993) plus input flooding, directing learner attention to salient or frequent linguistic features, intonational focus plus corrective recasting (Long, 2000), and interaction enhancement" (Doughty & Williams, 1998: 243).

Finally, once the heritage learners notice the gap, teachers should provide ample opportunities through classroom activities, tasks, or assignments that produce output that uses such forms in a meaningful context. Swain further promotes pedagogical models that are more interactive in nature, which maximizes the learner's productive use of the target language.

CONCLUSION

With the global awareness of the advantages and necessity of being bilingual and multilingual, the demand of Korean language maintenance is higher than ever. This is evident through the steady increase of enrollment in Korean language classes throughout universities across the nation, in which a significant number of learners are heritage learners. Furthermore, there is an urgent demand by the

US Department of Education to produce higher level (third, fourth year and up) learners.

Thus, with the Korean heritage learners having high potential in achieving this goal, further research needs to address: (1) As the data analysis implies, the interlanguage of heritage learners in comparison to the non-heritage learners needs to be more closely examined. (2) Empirical research of teacher-heritage learner interaction in KFL should be carried out to explore pedagogical implications in dealing with heritage learners *and* non-heritage learners. (3) The motivation and attitude of heritage learners should be assessed in order to have a more positive image and higher value of the target language (Korean). (4) More research is needed in educating the parents of heritage learners in that they should be made more aware of the importance of their roles in helping their children attain high-level proficiency in the language in which both the parents and children are culturally deeply embedded.

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Heritage vs. Non-heritage Issues Revisited

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Introduction

'Heritage' is not a difficult concept as dictionaries tell us.

> "Property that is or can be inherited; a tradition, etc. handed down from one's ancestors or the past" (Webster's New World Dictionary), "something transmitted by or acquired from a predecessor" (The Merriam-Webster's Dictionary), or "anything that is or may be inherited; inherited circumstances, benefits, etc." (Oxford Dictionary and Thesaurus).

When we add 'heritage' to 'language,' however, it presents a difficulty in defining what 'heritage language' is. This is because, in various language communities, each heritage language manifests different realities, an outcome of its sociopolitical and/or historical events, as discussed by Van Deusen-Scholl in "Toward a definition of heritage language: Sociopolitical and pedagogical considerations." Many find the label 'heritage' in the context of language negative or even offensive because "it points more to the past and less to the future, to traditions rather than to the contemporary. The danger is that the heritage language becomes associated with ancient cultures, past traditions and more 'primitive time.'" (Baker & Jones, 1998: 509) Regardless of its connotations and implications in some critics' minds, 'heritage language' is here to stay and in the absence of a better term it will occupy the major part of Korean curriculum discussions for years to come.

Korean language courses in U.S. colleges have exploded unprecedentedly since the early 1980's, from a handful of institutions to over sixty colleges and universities today (King). Even in the recent period of 1995-1998, Korean had a 34% increase in enrollment, the 3rd largest increase, only after American Sign Language and Biblical Hebrew in U.S. institutions of higher education (Brod and Welles, 2000). What propelled this increase owes, of course, much to Korean-American students, mainly heritage students. Their interest learning their ancestral language and improving upon what they already know has kicked off a boom in Korean enrollment in colleges, thus providing unprecedented opportunities in academia, especially in the teaching of the Korean language.

In the early 1980's when the Korean enrollment began to rapidly climb, heritage students comprised 90% or more at UC Berkeley; over a decade later in 1995, 80% of UCLA students were heritage students (Sohn, 1995), and the year 2000 survey of US colleges offering Korean (Lee, H.S.) shows that 85% (interpolating from 70-80% for 1st year, 90-100% for 2nd year) are heritage students. Then, it is clear that the majority taking Korean in the US are heritage students and these percentages, albeit an unscientific estimation, point to the fact that there has been little or no change in the ratio of heritage vs. non-heritage students in the last couple of decades. This status quo will continue for many years to come as long as there is a steady flow of Korean immigrants, continuing Korean parents' priority in education, and the continuous expansion of the Korean community. However, as the statement below indicates, this salient reality has received remarkably little attention in Korean language education, especially outside of the community.

> "Although the research has shown that the factors that influence the students' decision to seek language instruction may be different for heritage learners than for the traditional foreign language learners, few programs--with the exception of Spanish for Native Speakers programs--have taken these into consideration in their curriculum planning." (Van Deusen-Scholl, Nelleke 2001, p.16.)

I will briefly review what has been done with the heritage language issues in the Korean language teaching community.

Sung-Ock Sohn has initialed the events of the recent past relating to Korean heritage language issues in 1995 and 1997, followed by Ross King in 1998 and by Chang Bong Lee in 2000. Recognizing the urgency for a curriculum suitable for heritage learners, Sohn suggests a two-track system towards meeting the needs of heritage learners (1995) and reports on the successful implementation of a new two-track system in the UCLA Korean program (1997).

Ross King, in his compelling argument for a clear delineation of Korean as a Heritage Language vs. Korean as a Foreign Language in language programs, presents what the American Korean language community has been keenly aware of - the necessity for better programs, the lack of and/or misdirected allocation of available resources and the matters of Korean language maintenance in the community.

The third, most current article is that of C. B. Lee. Lee also presents a critique of the current Korean program and available text materials. Pointing out the apparent lack of specific pedagogical strategies for heritage learners and non-heritage learners in either Sohn's or King's article, he proposes an idea of teaching the two groups differently. Concerning grammar: teach Korean grammar to heritage learners implicitly, which is based on an inductive method, and teach non-heritage learners explicitly, which is a deductive method. He explains, "the way we teach grammar for them [non-heritage learners] should be *deductive:* that is, employ grammar-based teaching first and induce productive functional skills later. Put in a different way, accuracy is built first to lead to fluency."[1] His proposal is an interesting one and his premise well taken considering the pedagogical efficacy in a college setting. That is, college students do not have the luxury of acquiring the grammar rules implicitly, like children, which takes years of immersion in the language environment, nor can they interact freely, like children, with little intimidation for making mistakes.

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[1] The question, why the explicit grammar teaching method should be better for non-heritage learners than the implicit method, deserves more research.

To summarize their points, there are a number of obstacles to overcome in managing Korean language programs successfully. A large part of the obstacles has to do with heritage students comprising the majority of the Korean learners, unlike other foreign language programs, without adequate supports. In sum, they highlighted the importance of:

1) heritage learner based curriculum
2) textbooks designed for heritage learners
3) adequate funding for providing the necessities for heritage learners

As an answer to these complex and serious issues of teaching heritage vs. non-heritage learners, all three scholars agree on one thing: an absolute need for some form of separate curriculum for the two groups, be it two-track or one having separate courses. Although these are broad ranging and complex issues that may not have easy answers, these three scholars of Korean language teaching contributed immensely by focusing our attention on the realities faced by Korean programs in North America.

In this paper, I will critically examine some of the issues brought forth by Sohn, Lee and King, and add a few suggestions.

Curriculum issues

The unsatisfactory Korean curriculum issue has a life of its own. When Korean was offered at UCB in 1943, the first in the US, it was a true foreign language course; there were only a half dozen students enrolled, all having no background in Korean. During the next half century of the Korean program, the enrollment did not change much either in number or in ethnic make-up until the early 1980's, with the exception of a few years during the Korean war (there were about 20 enrolled at one time). I believe there was a similar state in the other handful of universities that offered Korean pre-1980's. Because of the early Korean program, the tradition was set and has continued until now even though the student population has changed. It is not because we have been blind to the changes, but simply that the bureaucracy or conservative nature of universities/academia is notoriously slow in responding to needs. How long did it take to institute a Korean major program in UCLA, in a city where the largest Korean population resides? How many colleges and universities offer a major in Korean now with several tens of colleges and universities offering Korean? What about UCB as the first ever university to offer Korean and it still does not have a Korean major? Of course, there were and are other compelling reasons that Korean studies have not had a wider appeal in academia.

First, there were few trained faculty members who could institute the program. But then, there were few universities to train Korean scholars - it has been a vicious circle.

Secondly, in many institutions, language teaching has been relegated to a back seat behind literature, linguistics, cultures and other 'content' disciplines. Consequently, language teaching has a second class status and it is not unusual to see professors of other specialties in charge of the Korean language program. Even if a linguistic scholar heads a language program, the scholar is interested in researching esoteric details of linguistic theories over issues immediately relevant to language teaching, either by choice or by academic pressure.

Thirdly, with few Korean faculties in universities, there was simply no one to advocate or pursue the funding or resources for the Korean program until the Korea Foundation and the Korea Research Foundation made their resources available to Korean studies in recent years.

Thus, it is not surprising that we, with the fastest growing enrollment in Korean, still have to struggle with insufficient support from the institutions and worry about implementing a two-track program for heritage learners.

Although a two-track program alleviates some of the problems in teaching heritage vs. non-heritage students, it does not answer all of the heritage students' varying needs. The irony is, even in a two-track program in which heritage learners comprise the majority, the non-heritage curriculum is the core in which the heritage curriculum dovetails. It appears that the heritage students do half as much work/progress at half the speed of the non-heritage students while waiting for the true beginners or non-heritage learners to catch up with them. For example, the heritage students spend 10 weeks in what seems to be essentially learning hangul and spelling (as the UCLA schedule indicates, Sohn, 1997, p.144) and UCB's Chinese two-track system that offers Track A for the non-heritage students for 5 hours per week, while Track B for heritage students 3 hours per week.[1] Heritage students are not moving on at the same rate of progress as the true beginners within the same time frame.

A better plan for heritage students seems to be to offer an accelerated program. An accelerated program would bring two-fold benefits; students could finish one year's work in one semester, after which they could either continue on to the next level or stop, not stretching into a full year unnecessarily, and instructors (and administrators) could then offer more Korean language courses with the same resources. I would even support giving more units for the accelerated courses based on the speed and materials covered; that would not only encourage students to move on to their full potential but also would award their existing skills.

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[1] Chinese has a reason for taking the slower path as I learned later. Because of the difficulty of memorizing so many Chinese characters in a short time, the accelerated courses were changed to slower 3-unit courses. Learning hangul does not have similar problems.

Language learning is a long process. After three years of Korean, even heritage students often find it difficult to read newspapers, understand TV programs, or carry on a serious conversation. It normally takes an intensive two to three years for heritage students before their Korean is advanced enough to take Korean literature courses. We have to take a hard look at what we can do to help heritage learners maximize their learning potential during their college years, along with non-heritage learners. It is imperative that we help and support heritage students go as far as they can in college, especially if they are planning to go into a Korean field, be it language, literature, history or political science.

One skill per semester approach

To promote heritage learners I suggest a radical curriculum change for heritage students, departing from our conventional program. First, our general goals of teaching Korean language have to be reexamined. It is taken for granted that the objective of Korean language teaching is to achieve a certain standard of proficiency in all four areas of skills, speaking, listening, reading and writing (or 5 including culture) at the same time within a given period. We may be overly concerned with students' well-balanced progress in all four skills, as most of the curricula are designed to achieve, thus dividing time for the four areas of skills in one semester or quarter, after which their language assessments are made. There is no compelling reason that every student must learn and progress in all four skills at the same time.

We can design a full credit course, not a partial credit course of two or three units but full five units just as non-heritage courses are, that focuses on one skill at a time, say, speaking, reading, or writing exclusively for a semester. Thereby heritage students could concentrate intensively on one skill without having to worry about others. Students could have a choice of taking whichever course they deem most interesting and beneficial to themselves, maximizing their motivation and potential. Some courses could have a certain combination, as in speaking-listening or reading-writing in a limited way. The idea is not new; there are many foreign language courses labeled 'conversation courses,' especially on the community college level, often catering to tourists' interests. I can see the immediate advantage, just being able to focus on one area in depth, reaching as far as one aspires to go.

I would also think that offering subject-based courses such as Business Korean (similar to the Japanese Business program once offered at UC, Berkeley, or Chabong Kim's Korean Business program at Brigham Young University), Korean for Music Aficionados, Korean for the Legal or Medical Professional, etc. would benefit heritage learners. It is no secret that a large number of students, both heritage and non-heritage students, aspire to have a professional career in business, law or medicine; it is true as well that many are talented musicians.

Heritage student- initiated curriculum

Another suggestion is to consider a course with a number of small groups, organized based on their stated interests. Because this is easily adaptable, it could be tried in programs with small enrollments; if they cannot afford a two-track program they can still try to meet heritage learner's individual needs.

The course steps are:

1. First, make an assessment of students' needs by means of an initial student survey. Students' objectives and goals for taking the course must be elicited and written out on the survey. (See a sample attached.)
2. Group students into a small number of students, not more than 4 or 5 based on similarities in objectives and interests. The fewer the number of students in a group, the more attention can be paid to individual students by the instructor(s).
3.Each group works out its weekly objectives in collaboration with the instructor, and presents the results to the instructor weekly or biweekly, as the instructor sees necessary.
3. All student classes are held two (or three) times weekly instead of five times, and other times are used for group meetings, providing each student time to present, talk and listen to what she/he prepares with the instructor and his/her group-mates.
4. Students' course grades are strictly based on the progress they make towards their stated objectives at the beginning of the course. It will be fair and just when the individual student's progress, not the exit performance based on a uniform exam, is measured.

To make this program successful, careful pre-planning requires a detailed organization of the content and methodology. With the initial interests and goals laid out by each group, the instructor's responsibility lies with how well the students are guided toward achieving their goals.

Text material issues

> "Curriculum, instructional materials, textbooks, etc. remain focused on foreign language instruction, despite the fact that an increasing percentage of the students can be identified as heritage learners." (Van Deusen-Scholl, p.17)

This assessment pertains not only to the Korean program. With a long history of foreign language teaching in the US, it seems that the same set of concerns exists with many other foreign language programs. Traditional foreign language materials, in accordance with the curriculum, have the prescribed basic three levels, beginning, intermediate and advanced. Based on this assumption of three ideal levels of students, Korean textbooks and teaching materials are developed accordingly, that is, textbooks are developed for the 20% of the non-heritage learners, ignoring the other 80% heritage students as mentioned earlier. This point has been well taken by King; he put it this way:

> The six-year, million-dollar Korea Foundation-sponsored collaborative KFL [Korean as a Foreign Language] textbooks project organized recently through the University of Hawaii is a noble idea, but remains at heart a KFL project producing materials aimed at the non-heritage learner. Thus, it is really just a well-funded continuation of what could be called 'the KFL charade' in North America.

I could not agree more with King's point. With all my due respect to the KLEAR project and its contributions, I may go one step further and say that it is not only a 'well-funded continuation' but also overly funded and overly ambitious. In my view, a textbook project that counts over 20 volumes, if I am correct, seems more like an encyclopaedia project than a set of textbooks for college language courses, and any language textbook project that is awarded one million dollars seems excessive in anyone's imagination or standard.

Furthermore, as in most disciplines, competition and variation encourage creativity in contents and methodology. When the single major resource is massively poured into one project, rejecting support for all other novel ideas, there remains no competitive edge, and little innovation and progress. I hope the next generation of funding will re-examine its objectives and priorities for the good of all Korean language programs in North America.

I agree that 'quality' is vital for textbooks; they must have no technical errors or misinformation, and must have well-organized contents. On the other hand, I may have difficulty arguing what a 'quality' textbook is in a prescribed way. Any textbook that meets the specific needs of a learner or instructor can be a 'quality' textbook for that individual or that instructor. It could be a 'silly' book, full of photos, diagrams, pictures, charts, or any number of visual materials; a book with scholarly grammatical, cultural and historical notes; or simply a book with fun dialogues, stories, or any number of mixtures of the features. It would be nice to have a well-balanced ideal textbook for fresh learners, but this ideal textbook will not necessarily suit students with varied backgrounds. As the saying goes, one man's treasure is another man's trash.

I say a 'quality' textbook is one that is made or suitable for the "target-specific," as King pointed out in a somewhat different context, for there is no "generic" college student, especially no "generic" heritage student. The UC Berkeley students' needs, backgrounds and aspirations may not be those of students on the east coast, or even students at Stanford, a mere 40 miles away, or students at S.F. City College, practically next door.

This brings me to hope that there will be many different textbooks and materials produced in the future, especially when we have so few in the market. All three scholars, Sohn, King and Lee question why there are no textbooks for heritage students and why the existing books are all in the same format. To address the questions, we need to encourage instructors and writers to create diverse teaching materials to fill the needs in contents as well as in format, not just following what has been done in the past. Learning or teaching, whether it is language or another subject, does not take place in one prescribed way or with one set of textbooks and teaching materials. It would be beneficial and helpful to have plenty of textbooks and teaching materials, as in ESL or Spanish, that were produced by individuals with different ideas and innovations so that we could have a large pool of unique, interesting and challenging materials, from which we could choose and adopt as the situation calls for.

In developing textbooks, I would also like to see new textbooks and supporting materials focusing on a certain professional interest, major field of research or a personal interest. For example, I can think of several titles of something like:

> Basic Korean for business, which would be a guide through useful phrases, expressions, idioms, words, reports, and stories usually found in the business world.
> Basic Korean for the music world, similar to the business-oriented.
> Basic Korean for the healthcare profession
> Basic Korean for journalism or politics
> Basic Korean for legal studies or professionals
> Basic Korean for science, engineering, etc.
> How to enjoy Korean poetry, short stories, paintings, movies, etc.
> How to journey through Korea
> How to write letters, reports, inquiries and so on in Korean

Considering how strongly Korean heritage students are motivated towards professional careers, how curious they are about the ancestral land, and how deeply they are family-oriented, books relating to such interests would be a great service to them. Their heritage in Korean should be encouraged, valued and supported by materials with interesting and challenging contents that they can explore and use to enrich their potentials. I am constantly surprised how well, beyond my expectations, many students perform in writing, comprehending and speaking Korean as evidenced in their works. (Some sample works were shown in last year's presentation on "Oral Fluency Enhancement.") When such books become available, the subject-oriented courses, as suggested earlier, would become more viable for instructors to offer as a course.

Instructor training issues

The Korean language teaching is dominated by linguists. Linguists study the history, the structure of language, and they are often deeply emerged in the complex rules of grammar and the theories of language; they are too esoteric, too theoretical or too grammar-oriented for language learners. Linguists are by training not language teachers, yet we assume too often that linguists automatically make good language teachers. It would be unthinkable to let a medical doctor, who has learned all about human anatomy but has never taken care of a patient, go out to treat patients. But that is what has happened in the early years of Korean language programs.

A good language teacher knows how to teach and what to teach; the knowledge and experience of teaching a language are more important, in my opinion, than knowing how the deep structures of grammar or complex phonological rules presume to operate in our subconscious minds. Unfortunately, linguists are not in general required to take language teaching courses; I am very aware of this because I had to learn the hard way.

We also know well that we need Korean language teachers with various backgrounds, as in any field where the center of focus is people, especially teaching heritage learners because their interests go beyond language learning. With proper linguistic knowledge, training in language teaching methodologies and real life experiences in language teaching, a person fluent in the language can be an excellent language teacher. We at UCB's Korean program heavily rely on GSIs (Graduate Student Instructors) from all disciplines - political science, education, philosophy, history and even, at times, from engineering. Although they have no training in linguistics, they become very competent after a short training and some classroom experience, not only in teaching the language but also in inspiring students because of their additional specialties.

Closing remarks

I have reviewed what has been discussed about heritage language issues from curriculum, pedagogy and textbook development to teacher training. I have suggested some different approaches to answer the issues, some may not be immediately applicable to the current state of Korean programs, but we need to explore many possibilities for the future.

In closing, I would like to add a word on choosing words. I often see and hear 'remedial' or 'illiterate' in the context of heritage learners. These words do not highlight their valuable qualities of knowing a certain amount or aspects of the language and culture; rather it belittles them by the implication of something lacking or of their being ignorant. Even though they cannot read and write, the fact that they can speak, even minimally, and comprehend the complex structures of Korean, puts them in a special class by themselves. I would prefer some non-descriptive term like Subject A in Korean (for illiteracy) or Subject S (for spelling) to 'remedial' and 'illiterate/illiteracy.'

Another point to make along the same line of valuing heritage learners is to initiate a way to give credits by examination, not just a waiver or fulfillment of language requirements, as some other European languages have done. It would be a way of giving recognition to their strengths and, at the same time, it might also eliminate or reduce the temptation for heritage students to become a 'false beginner' or to be sitting in a 'G.P.A-boosting' course.

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The Degree of L1 Interference among Heritage and Non-heritage Learners of Korean: Do Heritage Students Have Advantages over Non-heritage Students?

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1. Introduction

One of the general beliefs among teachers and students in Korean language classes is that heritage students usually have advantages over non-heritage students in the target language learning. However, few studies have been conducted to confirm or disconfirm this belief with respect to different aspects of the language and different factors that affect language learning. The present study compared the degree of negative L1 transfer shown by heritage learners of Korean with those shown by non-heritage learners of Korean to find out whether heritage learners have advantages over non-heritage learners in overcoming the interference from their first language (English). Two grammar structures were selected in order to see possible transfer effects from L1 English to L2 Korean -- the null-subject and *wh-in-situ* constructions. In the following section, we will examine the parametric differences between Korean and English in regard to these two parameters.

2. *Wh*-movement and Pro-drop Parameters in Korean and English

According to the Universal Grammar (UG) theory (e.g., Chomsky; 1981, 1991), the child is born equipped with a set of universal linguistic principles and a range of permissible variation, and it is these innate devices which make acquisition of language possible from the limited data available to the child. Within the Government and Binding framework (Chomsky, 1981), UG is concerned with the principles and parameters: principles of UG hold of all human languages and thus are invariable across languages, and parameters of UG define a set of possible parametric values which explain cross-linguistic variation. The introduction of parameters enabled us to describe crosslinguistic variation in a more restricted and simple way. For example, as we will see more in this section, the difference between the languages that allow subjectless sentences such as Spanish and those that do not allow subjectless sentences such as English can be expressed in a simple dichotomy of [+] and [-] value of the pro-drop parameter. Therefore, within the principles and parameters theory, it is the different values of the same parameter that create differences among languages. In second language acquisition, the L2 learner is likely to transfer parametric values of her/his native language to the target language, especially in the early stage of L2 learning. When values of a parameter are different between the learner's native language and the target language, negative transfers are expected. To understand what negative transfers are expected in the L2 acquisition of Korean by English-speaking learners, we will briefly examine the parametric differences between English and Korean in *wh*-movement and pro-drop settings.

2.1. *Wh*-movement in English and Korean

In English, like many other languages which have overt movement rules in syntax to form questions, the *wh*-phrase is raised to [Spec, CP] in *wh*-questions. The *wh*-phrase might be the subject, the object, or the adjunct. (1) is a typical English declarative sentence.

(1) [$_{IP}$ John drank coffee in the car]

If the subject, object, or adjunct is not known in (1), the following *wh*-questions will be formed to obtain information on the unknown part. Note that the *wh*-phrase is raised to the sentence initial position.

(2) a. [$_{CP}$ who$_i$ [[$_{IP}$ t$_i$ drank coffee in the car?]]]
b. [$_{CP}$ what$_i$ [did [$_{IP}$ John drink t$_i$ in the car ?]]]
c. [$_{CP}$ where$_i$ [did [$_{IP}$ John drink coffee t$_i$?]]]

On the other hand, Korean, like Japanese and Chinese, does not have overt *wh*-movement. Consider first a typical Korean declarative sentence.

(3) [$_{IP}$John-i cha-eyse coffee-lul masi-ess-eyo]
John-nom car-loc coffee-acc drink-pst-end
'John drank coffee in the car'

The normal Korean word order is SOV, as shown above, in which the adjunct phrase (*cha-eyse*) can be placed anywhere but in the clause-final position, depending on how much focus is given to the adjunct phrase. In order to form a *wh*-question, the constituent in question is simply replaced by a *wh*-phrase without any subsequent movement. *Wh*-phrases are italicized in (4).

(4) a. [$_{CP}$ [$_{IP}$ *nwu(ku)-ka* cha-eyse coffee-lul masi-ess-eyo?]]
who-nom car-loc coffee-acc drink-pst-end
' Who drank coffee in the car?'

b. [$_{CP}$ [$_{IP}$John-i cha-eyse *mwuet-ul* masi-ess-eyo?]]
John-nom car-loc what-acc drink-pst-end
' What did John drink in the car?'

c. [$_{CP}$ [$_{IP}$John-i *edi-eyse* coffee-lul masi-ess-eyo?]]
John-nom where-loc coffee-acc drink-pst-end
'Where did John drink coffee?'

The above examples show that *wh*-words in Korean remain in the base-generated position without any movement in *wh*-questions.[1] Since earlier studies, such as Bach (1971) or Huang (1982), it has been widely accepted that Korean does not employ syntactic *wh*-movement.

As we have seen above, the difference in forming *wh*-questions between English and Korean can be parameterized in terms of whether or not syntactic *wh*-movement is adopted: English is a language with [+*wh*-movement] and Korean with [-*wh*-movement].

2.2. Pro-drop parameter in Korean and English.

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[1] In fact, in Korean word order, any element except a verbal complex can be preposed when it receives a focus (focus movement or scrambling). For instance, in sentence (21), when the object *sakwa* 'apple' receives a focus, it moves to the front, generating the following OSV word order sentence:

coffee-lul$_i$ John-i cha-eyse t_i masi-ess-eyo.
coffee-acc John-nom car-loc drink-pst-end
' John drank coffee in the car' or 'It is coffee that John drank in the car'

Therefore, if a *wh*-question is introduced into the above OSV sentence, the following *wh*-questions will be formed:

a. [*mwuet-ul* John-i cha-eyse masi-ess-eyo]?
what-acc John-nom car-loc drink-pst-end (when the object is asked)
'What did John drink in the car?' (with a focus on *what*)

b. [coffee-lul$_i$ *Nwu(ku)-ka* cha-eyse t_i masi-ess-eyo]?
coffee-acc who-nom car-loc drink-pst end (when the subject is asked)
' Talking about an apple, who ate it?'

'Seemingly, example *a* here appears to adopt *wh*-movement because it departs from the normal Korean SOV word order, but in fact, this must be understood as a result of the focus movement.

Adult English does not allow finite declarative sentences without subjects. It differs from Italian and Spanish which may have null subjects.

(5) a. English
* rains
it rains
* am the walrus
I am the walrus
* speaks
he speaks

b. Italian
piove '(it) rains'
sono il tricheco '(I) am the walrus'
parla '(he)speaks'

Within the Government and Binding framework (Chomsky, 1986), sentences as in (5b) have been explained to have phonologically empty subjects or "pro", rather than having no subject at all, and languages that may have empty subjects in finite declarative sentences have been called null subject or pro-drop languages. English is one of the non-pro-drop languages which must have overt subjects.

Unlike English, Korean allows null subjects. The following sentences in (6) show that the first and second person subject pronouns are often dropped in a speech situation. If no subject is used, the subject is usually 'I' in a declarative sentence and 'you' in an interrogative sentence.

(6) a. A: Ilyoil-ey hakkyo-ey iss-ess-eyo?
Sunday-on school-at exist-pst-end
'Were (you) at school on Sunday?'

B: Aniyo, Chulsoo-hako kukcang-ey ka-ass-eyo.
no, Chulsoo-with movie theater-to go-pst-end
' No, (I) went to a movie theater with Chulsoo'

If a discourse topic is established and the subject of the sentence is recoverable from the context, the third person pronoun can also be dropped, as shown in (7).

(7) a. A: Ilyoil-ey Chulsoo-ka eti ka-ass-eyo?
Sunday-on Chulsoo-nom where go-pst-end
'Where did Chulsoo go Sunday?'

B: kukcang-ey ka-ass-eyo.
school-to go-pst-end
'(He) went to a movie theater'

A: Nookoo-hako kukcang -ey ka-ass-eyo?
Who-with movie theater-to go-pst-end
'With whom did (he) go to the movie theater?'

Along with languages such as Italian, Spanish, Japanese, and Chinese, Korean is categorized as a pro-drop language.[2] Pronoun subjects are dropped whenever they can be recoverable from the context. The difference between Korean and English in the use of the obligatory overt subject can be described through different values of the pro-drop parameter: English is a language with [-pro-drop] and Korean with [+pro-drop].

3. The Study

3.1. Purpose of the study and working hypotheses

The purpose of this study was to investigate the early interlanguage forms of *wh*-questions and the pro-drop settings produced by heritage and non-heritage learners of Korean whose L1 is English, and to compare degree of negative L1 transfer shown by these two groups of learners. Two working hypotheses were set up. They were:

> 1) Advantage Hypothesis:
> Heritage students will have advantages over non-heritage students in overcoming the negative transfer of their L1 English parametric values. Therefore, degree of negative transfer will differ in the two groups in the early stage of L2 Korean acquisition: non-heritage students will adopt more [+*wh*-movement] and [-pro-drop] settings (their L1 parameter values) than heritage students will do.

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[2] As noticed by Huang (1984, 1989) and Jaeggli & Safir (1989) among others, Korean type pro-drop (including Chinese and Japanese) is different from Spanish and Italian type pro-drop. Traditionally, Spanish and Italian type pro-drop has been related to the presence of rich subject-verb agreement, which determines the grammatical feature of the missing subject (Taraldsen, 1978; Chomsky 1982). That is, the use of pro is dependent on the richness of Agr and the "rich enough" Agr licenses pro in subject position. However, languages such as Chinese, Japanese, and Korean raise questions about this view because they have null subjects in the absence of agreement. Attempts have been made to explain the two types of pro-drop languages within one generalization, for example, Jaeggli & Safir (1989)'s morphologically uniform paradigm hypothesis.

> 2) No-Advantage Hypothesis:
> Heritage students will not have advantages over non-heritage students in overcoming the negative transfer of their L1 English parameter settings. Therefore, there will be no significant difference in degree of negative transfer between the two groups in the early stage of L2 Korean acquisition.: non-heritage students and heritage students will show similar degrees in adopting their L1 parameter settings, [+*wh*-movement] and [-pro-drop].

In order to test these two hypotheses, we conducted a study with English-speaking learners of the beginning level L2 Korean.

3.2. Subjects and data collection procedure

A total of nine students participated in the study. Subjects consisted of two groups of L2 learners of Korean: five heritage and four non-heritage learners of Korean. All participants were the students of the first-year Korean class at Washington University in St. Louis and were rated as beginning level learners. The participants had studied the target language less than 6 months at the university at the time of the data collection. The following table shows a profile of the subjects.

Table 1. Subjects of the study

	Heritage learners	Non-heritage learners
Number of subjects	5	4
Age range	19-24	19-29
Speaking and writing proficiency level	Beginning level	Beginning level
Sources of informal exposure to Korean	Parents and relatives (all 5 students)	Spouse (1 student) None (3 students)
Average Months of Formal Korean learning	6 Months (university) 11 Months (weekend Korean community schools)	6 Months (university)
Country of L2 Korean learning	U.S.A	U. S. A

Written-production tasks were used to collect data. The tasks were given to the subjects as part of their classroom activities, and approximately 50 minutes were allocated to complete the tasks. The tasks were not to be affected by subjects' vocabulary knowledge and the subjects were allowed to use a dictionary.

Four types of production tasks were to be completed. Two types of tasks were used to investigate the subjects' *wh*-questions. In the first task, subjects were asked to make *wh*-questions using all the vocabulary items given to them. A subject, a verb, and a *wh*-word in Korean were provided for each composition, and a total of twelve questions were asked to be composed. We want to minimize the possible influence of the subjects' formulaic speech knowledge, which does not reflect the productive use of grammar, so that the participants were given subject NPs that contained two nouns, a noun and an adjectival modifier, or a noun with a postpositional phrase, rather than a single noun. For example, *ku namca hako yeca* (the man and woman) *ku bappun namca* (the busy man), or *bang an uy namca* (the man in the room) was used for the subject NP rather than just *ku namca* (*the man*). The subjects were instructed to include all the given vocabulary words. The verb forms were allowed to be conjugated as needed. In the second task, subjects were asked to make *wh*-questions without any words given to them but a conversational situation and a stimulus picture were presented for each question to help the subjects understand the situation in which the question might occur. Six questions were to be made through this task.

To investigate the L2 pro-drop phenomenon, two types of tasks were designed. The first type of task consisted of two parts. Participants were first asked to compose a paragraph about their daily (or weekly) schedule. Then, they were presented a series of pictures depicting the daily activities of a woman character (e.g., meeting a friend, watching a movie, etc.) and asked to make a story based on the pictures. This task was to provide an environment for L2 learners to use empty subjects in a narrative setting when a discourse topic had been set up. In the next task, conversational situations were given through pictures. For example, subjects were given a telephone dialog situation in which one female asks the other female "*chulsoo-ka mwe haeyo?*" (what is chulsoo doing?) along with a picture in which *chulsoo* is reading a newspaper. Participants were expected to write an answer to the question, which would most likely be "*(ku saram-i or chulsoo-ka) shinmoon-ul ilgeyo*" ((*he or chulsoo*) reads a newspaper).

3.3. Data coding procedure and results

3.3.1 *Wh*-constructions

Some *wh*-construction data collected through the production tasks were not appropriate for investigating the learner's interlanguage grammar of *wh*-movement and thus excluded for the final analysis. The excluded sentences include *i*) sentences without a *wh*-word; *ii*) sentences which contained a *wh*-word, but for which it was not possible to decide the position of the *wh*-word in relation with the subject and verb due to the lack of a subject or a verb, or both; *iii*) sentences which showed a simple repetition of the given words or repetition of the same subjects or the same verbs in a clause. After excluding the above types of sentences, each *wh*-question was analyzed with respect to placement of *wh*-phrase in connection with the subject and verb.

The two major patterns were identified in the interlanguage data: Wh-S-(X)-V and S-(X)-Wh-(X)-V patterns. Some examples are given below.

(2) a. Wh-S-(X)-V Pattern

i) edi bappun namca-ka ka-yo?
where busy man-nom go-pres.end
'where does the busy man go?'

ii) nwukoo-lul Seoul-uy Soomi-ka salangha-yyo?
who-acc Seoul-poss Soomi-nom love-pres.end.
'Who does Soomi in Seoul love?'

b. S-(X)-Wh-(X)-V Pattern

i) bappun namca-ka edi ka-yo?
busy man where go-pres.end
'where does the busy man go?'

ii) Sewul-uy Soomi-ka nwukoo-lul salangha-yyo?
Seoul-poss Soomi-nom who-acc love-pres.end
' Who does Soomi in Seoul love?'

We coded the S-Wh-V pattern in the Korean interlanguage as the *wh-in-situ* pattern in which no overt *wh*-movement has been made and in which the typical Korean word order is maintained. On the other hand, the Wh-S-V pattern was analyzed as reflecting fronting of the *wh*-word through *wh*-movement. We regarded this Wh-S-V pattern as showing the transfer of the L1 parametric value [+ *wh*-movement] to the early stage of L2 grammar.

A total of 149 *wh*-questions were found useful for the analysis, 75 of them from the heritage student group and 62 from the non-heritage group. Table 2 shows distribution of the Korean *wh*-questions produced by the participants.

Table 2. Distribution of different patterns in Korean *wh*-questions produced by L1 English-subjects

	Heritage students group		Non-heritage students group		Overall (heritage + non-heritage)	
	No. of sentence	%	No. of sentence	%	No. of sentence	%
Wh-S-V	18	21.2	16	25.0	34	22.8
S-Wh-V	63	74.1	43	67.2	106	71.1
Others	4	4.7	5	7.8	9	6.1
Total	85	100	64	100	149	100

The participants predominantly employed the S-Wh-V pattern (71.1% overall). The heritage group students produced this pattern in 63 cases out of a total of 85 questions (74.1%), and the non-heritage group students also heavily adopted this pattern, 43 cases out of a total of 64 questions (67.2%). Relatively small number of the *wh*-questions were in the Wh-S-V pattern: 18 cases (21.2 %) in the heritage group and 16 cases (25%) in the non-heritage group. Overall, only 34 sentences (22.8%) of the total *wh*-questions were in Wh-S-V pattern. These results show that the beginning level L2 Korean students, regardless of whether they are heritage or non-heritage students, produced sentences with *wh-in-situ* (S-Wh-V pattern) overwhelmingly more than those with overt *wh*-movement (Wh-S-V pattern). In other words, L2 learners tend to keep the *wh*-word in the base position without movement, showing no significant transfer of their L1 parametric value, [+ *wh*-movement].

Comparison of the heritages and non-heritage groups, which is the main goal of our study, shows that there is no significant difference between the two groups in the production of *wh-in-situ* sentences: non-heritage students have as little difficulty as heritage students in producing *wh-in-situ* sentences in the early stage of L2 Korean development.[3] This result suggests that non-heritage students are not more vulnerable to the negative transfer of their L1 parametric value than heritage students are, as long as *wh*-movement parameter is concerned.

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[3] $t(9) = .627$, $p < .05$, two tailed.

3.3.2. The pro-drop parameter

To investigate the L2 Korean learners' use of pro-drop, we counted the actual number of null subject sentences in the data and calculated its percentage proportion against the total number of sentences for which use of a null subject was appropriate in Korean. As we have seen in the previous section, sentences for which use of a null subject is appropriate in Korean are those sentences whose subject was recoverable from the context, including 'I' in a declarative sentence, 'you' in an interrogative sentence, and other pronoun subjects when a discourse topic is already established. Clearly idiomatic phrases were excluded for the analysis.

The following table shows the production of null subject sentences in our L2 Korean data.

Table 3. Use of null subject in L2 Korean data by L1 English subjects

	Heritage student group	Non-heritage student group	Overall (heritage + non heritage)
Total number of sentences*	41	37	78
Number of null subject sentences	34	27	61
% Null subject sentences	82%	73%	79%

* Total number of sentences for which use of null subject is appropriate in Korean.

Overall, 79% of the sentences in which the subject was recoverable from the context were null subject sentences. Adoption of null subject sentences was clear in both the heritage and non-heritage students groups: the heritage student group produced null subject sentences in 34 cases out of the total of 41 sentences (82%); the non-heritage student group in 27 cases out of the total of 37 sentences (73%). These results suggest that our participants did not have much difficulty in adopting Korean null subject sentences in their early stage of L2 Korean learning regardless of whether they are heritage learners or not.

Comparison of the heritage group and non-heritage group confirmed that there was no significant difference in the production of null-subjects between the two groups.[4] These results were taken to suggest that in the early stage of L2 Korean production, non-heritage students, compared with heritage students, do not have disadvantage with respect to the negative influence from their L1 parametric value [-pro-drop].

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[4] $t(9) = 1.258$. $p > .05$. two tailed.

4. Summary and Conclusion

The purpose of this study was to explore whether the learners' different background in language heritage makes difference in overcoming negative influence of L1 English parametric values in the early interlanguage production of L2 Korean. Pro-drop and *wh*-movement phenomena, for which the two languages hold different parametric values, were selected as target structures in this study. We hypothesized that if heritage students have advantages over non-heritage students, they will experience less difficulty in adopting target language parameter values, [-*wh*-movement] and [+pro-drop], from the early stage of the L2 learning (advantage hypothesis). Otherwise, non-heritage students and heritage students will show similar degrees in adopting L2 parametric values (no-advantage hypothesis). We used a set of written-production tests designed to elicit *wh*-questions and declarative sentences for which use of the null-subject is appropriate in Korean. The results are: 1) both heritage and non-heritage students predominantly employed the *wh-in-situ* pattern (S-Wh-V pattern) in their production of Korean *wh*-questions (71% overall) and; 2) there was a no significant difference between the two group's production of *wh-in-situ* pattern; 3) both groups used null subject sentences at a very high rate in their Korean production (79% overall); and 4) there was no significant difference between the two groups' production of null-subject sentences.

Our results indicate that heritage students are not advantaged over non-heritage students in acquisition of the parametric values that are different from their L1 values, when measured through written-production tasks: the two groups showed similar degrees of L1 interference in acquisition of both Korean null subject and *wh-in-situ* constructions, supporting the no-advantage hypothesis. Although the present study is a small-scale pilot study, these results at least lead us to suggest that heritage students are not advantaged in all aspects of L2 learning and that more studies are needed to find out what aspects and factors of L2 learning explain the differences between the heritage and non-heritage students.

Abbreviations

acc	Accusative case marker
end	Sentence ending (either declarative or interrogative)
fut	future tense marker
loc	Locative marker
nom	Nominative case marker
poss	Possessive marker

pres	Present tense morpheme
pst	Past tense morpheme

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Part XI

Development of Writing Skills

ENGLISH SPEAKING STUDENTS' WRITTEN LANGUAGE DEVELOPMENT IN KOREAN IN A KOREAN/ENGLISH TWO-WAY IMMERSION PROGRAM

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1. Introduction

Two-Way bilingual immersion (TWI) integrates students from any two distinct language backgrounds. This program also allows students to develop proficiency in a second language and culture while achieving the objectives of the elementary school curriculum. TWI programs are considered as one of most desirable models for bilingual education because language minority students benefit from the opportunity to develop and learn their native language as well as English; simultaneously, native English speakers not only perform well academically, but also learn a foreign language in an immersion environment. In implementing TWI, there are many variations within TWI with regard to the method of the instructor's delivery. The programs are categorized according to the following criteria: the instructional time, the starting point, and the portion of instruction of each language. This variation usually depends on the instructional time that should be spent in each language and when literacy instruction in second language should begin.

With regard to Korean English bilingual education, the difficulty in deciding the type of program to implement stems from the fact that there has been very little research done on simultaneous bilingual development in Korean and English. In particular, there has been very little relevant research on Korean/English bilingual immersion programs since these programs started in 1992.

Children's native language may affect their learning a particular second language. Most studies on the bilingual development of immersion programs are about French and English bilingual (Genesee, 1987; Lambert & Tucker, 1972; Swain 1985), or Spanish and English bilingual (Collier, 1992; Howard & Christine, 1997). In comparison to either French or Spanish, Korean is totally different in these following aspects: Korean has a different alphabet; the sentential word order is of the subject-object-verb (S-O-V) type; the grammatical function of nouns is marked with a case marker; there is no agreement of subject and verb; and the inflection of verbs is quite complex. Thus, this study will provide an insight about bilingual development when children are exposed to two totally different languages, them being Korean and English.

The status of Korean is not as significant as that of French in Canada or Spanish in the United States. In the case of French in Canada, it is the second official language there. By contrast, in the United States, there is a large population whose mother tongue is Spanish, especially in California. Campbell points out that one of the most striking difference between St. Lambert immersion program and Culver City Spanish immersion was "the role that French plays in the social, political, and economic life of the residents of Quebec as compared to the role of Spanish in those same areas in southern California" (1984, p. 123). It is mentioned in the article published about the Culver City study that the parents who enrolled their children in the program did so for the following reason: so that their children could learn a useful foreign language such as Spanish in Southern California.

The purpose of this study is to explore the development of the written Korean both native English and Korean -speaking students enrolled in two-way immersion programs. Specifically, this study focuses on the Korean language development in the written language of elementary school children enrolled in a 50/50 Two-Way immersion Korean/English program. Analyzing the written language of children in this program will provide an opportunity to investigate the effects of two-way immersion in English speaking children's learning Korean.

2. Research Methodology

2.1 Profile of the program

The TWI in Angel Elementary School (name changed for protection) is called a Korean/English Two-Way bilingual immersion Program. Angel Elementary School which is located in California, has had a TWI bilingual immersion program since 1993. The program adheres to a 50/50 model, meaning that at all grade levels K-5 receive 50% of their instruction is in English and 50% of it in Korean, the target language. However, the instruction time for each language is changed according to grade: K-2 , 70% Korean and 30% English, then 3-5, 50% Korean and 50% English.

Academic instruction takes place in both languages on a daily basis. Half of each day's instruction is conducted in Korean, and the other half is conducted in English. For the language of initial reading instruction, Korean speakers start with Korean, while English speakers start with English and Korean. Language arts is taught in both languages from kindergarten. Academic content areas, on the other hand are taught in one language or the other. Teachers are responsible for instruction in both languages; the same teacher delivers instruction in both English and Korean. All the teachers are bilingual speakers of English and Korean. The teachers for the classes involved in this study are native Korean speakers who immigrated into the United States when they were young.

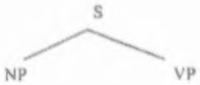
In this program, each class includes both native Korean speakers and native English speakers, along with several children who speak another language with native proficiency. They are integrated for the entire day and work in heterogeneous cooperative groups. Students are recruited through conferences, parental request, and community meetings. Students for this program are accepted based on their age and language proficiency.

2.2 Method

The data for this study came from students' portfolios in the fall of 1998 from the first through fifth grade. Six students were randomly selected from each grade level. Three students were native English speakers while the other three were native Korean speakers. The total number of students in this study, therefore, is 30. One Korean writing sample was collected from each student's portfolios. The samples are authenticated classroom assignments rather than a specific prompt for the purpose of this study. They, therefore, covered various topics and writing genres. During the period when the writings were collected (November of 1998), classroom observations were also conducted.

Mean length of utterance (MLU)[1] is used as an indicator to describe the written language proficiency in this study. For the MLU in this study, the concept of minimal terminable syntactic units (T-unit)[2] was used rather than utterance because written language was analyzed to show the language development. Therefore, as the basis for most of the detailed analyses undertaken in this study, the writing samples were segmented into T-units instead of sentential or clausal structures. The T-unit is a single grammatically independent construction together with any subordinate clauses that may be grammatically related to it. For this reason, it can be isolated from other grammatically independent constructions and may be coded in a simple or a complex sentence, but not in a compound sentence. Ross (1973) defines that a theme is not divided into sentences on the basis of punctuation, but rather is divided into a T-unit on the basis of a grammatical analysis of its constituents, whether or not those segmentations co-occur with the student's punctuation. A T-unit can be composed of a single sentence that has only one NP and VP within the construction like (1). It can also be composed of several sentences as (2).

(1)



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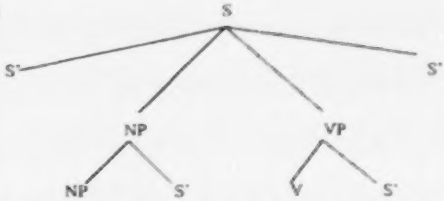
[1] Typically MLU stands for Mean Length per utterance, however, in this study, MLU means Mean Length per T-unit. T-unit is used as a unit instead of utterance.

[2] It is the unit that was particularly useful in the study of children's writing as a means for segmenting the written materials of children into linguistic units when punctuation (or the lack of it) proves unreliable in reconstruction. (Hunt, 1964)

(2)



According to Ross (1973), when a sentence is composed of more than one S as in (2), the uppermost clause will be regarded as the head and all other will be the subordinate clause of the main clause. The subordinate clauses will be conjoined verb phrases, subordinate adverbials, relativized nominals, or some other type of conjoined or embedded sentence. So, when the T-unit is type of (2), the main clause is considered as one independent unit and the subordinate clauses will not be counted as a T-unit in this study.

After the writing samples were broken into T-units, the number of morphemes in each T-unit was counted to get MLU. Despite the fact that words were used to identify the sentence, the length of the T-unit was measured according to the morphemes in this study because it gives a better indication of syntactic development. Besides, morphologically complex words are not equated with morphologically simple words in measuring the syntactic development. To obtain the MLU, the total number of morphemes of each student's writing was divided into the total number of T-units therein.

3. Findings and Discussion

3.1 Findings

The data for this study came primarily from a portfolio of 30 students' writings. The first procedure was to count the number of T-units and morphemes in each student's writing. To get the MLU, the total number of morphemes was divided into the number of T-units for each student. The results from MLU is in Figure 1.

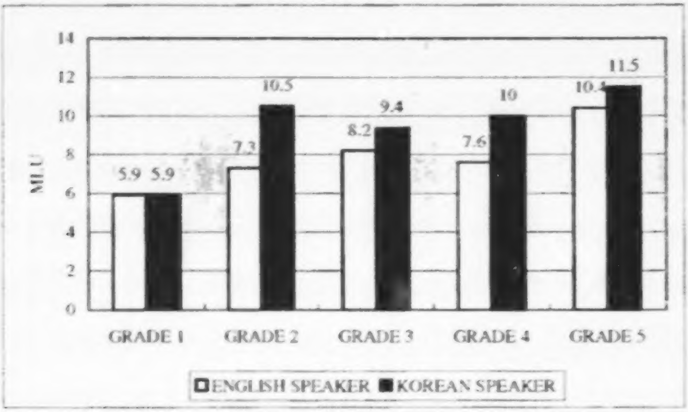


FIGURE 1. Group mean of MLU in Korean writing.

Regarding the MLU of the Korean language (see Figure 1), the English speakers show a very gradual increase without remarkable increases across grades. The group mean for grade 1 is 5.9, grade 2 is 7.3, grade 3 is 8.2, grade 4 is 7.6, and grade 5 is 10.4. Even though their MLU is slightly lower than that of Korean speakers, English speakers' MLU development is comparable to that of Korean speakers. However, for Korean speakers, noticeable change occurred between grades first and second. After the third grade, however, the group mean did not increased much. The group mean for grade 1 is 5.9. For grade 2, it is 10.5. In grade 3, it is 9.4. In grade 4, it is 10. And it jumps to 11.5 in grade 5.

The numbers of morphemes in Korean writings (see Figure 2) shows a steady rate of increase according to the grade level of both speakers. The English speakers' group mean in Korean writing is 53 for grade 1, 82.3 for grade 2, 118 for grade 3, 88.3 for grade 4, and 155.7 for grade 5. The increase in percentage is about 155% from grade 1 to grade 2; 143% from grade 2 to grade 3; 75% from grade 3 to grade 4; and 176% from grade 4 to grade 5. The morpheme number here has increased by 294% from grades first through fifth. Korean speakers' group mean in Korean writing is 64.7 for grade 1, 132 for grade 2, 136.3 for grade 3, 196.5 for grade 4, and 225 for grade 5. The increase in percentage is about 204% from grade 1 to grade 2; 105% from grade 2 to grade 3; 144% from grade 3 to grade 4; and 115% from grade 4 to grade 5. The morpheme number in this study increases by 348% from grades first through fifth.

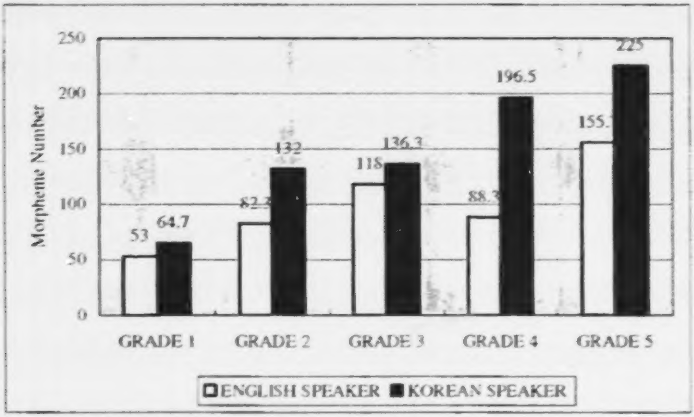


FIGURE 2. Group mean of morpheme number in Korean writing.

The morpheme increase in Korean for English speakers lagged behind that of Korean counterparts significantly. The morpheme increase of Korean speakers is higher than that of English speaker in the percentage as well as actual numbers when they are in grade 5.

In regarding to the methodology used in obtaining the MLU in this study, it is necessary to examine the increase of T-unit in number to explain the language development with respect to MLU. T-units also indicates the elaboration and quality of writing samples indirectly.

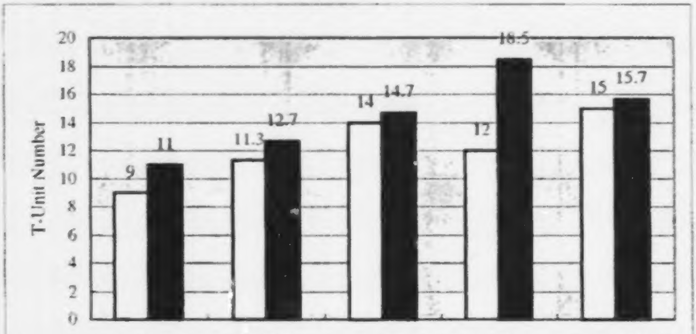


FIGURE 3. Group mean of T-unit in Korean writing

Native speakers of both languages demonstrate gradual increases in the T-unit of Korean. For English speakers, the group mean for first grade is 9. In second grade, it increases to 11.3. In the third grade, it jumps to 14. In fourth grade, it is 12. Finally, in the fifth grade, it jumps to 15. Korean speakers also show a gradual increase across grades. For Korean speakers, the group mean for first grade is 11. By second grade, it is 12.7. In third grade, it jumps to 14.7. By fourth grade, it increases to 18.5. By fifth grade, it is 15.7. In general, the findings from the T-unit data seem to indicate that both speakers are at the same level of proficiency in Korean in regards to the T-unit.

3.2 Discussion

Concerning Korean language development, English speakers did not lag much behind native Korean speakers. Compare the following figures: By grade 5, the MLU in Korean for English speakers is 10.4 and 11.5 for Korean speakers.

In the morpheme development and the increase of T-unit, English speakers were comparable to the native Korean speakers. In addition, Korean speakers all seemed to maintain their Korean. Still, their written proficiency does not seem to increase as they grow up because their MLU stagnated after the third grade.

Throughout elementary school, proficiency in the Korean language gradually increased for both speakers. In regards to T-unit development, both speakers showed a gradual rather than a dramatic increase.

While there is a slow increase in the morpheme and T-unit development, the MLU itself might not provide enough information to show the actual language development.[3] Therefore, even though MLU development in the Korean language for both speakers was comparable to each other in the Korean language development, the language development of Korean speakers in this program might not be considered to be at the same level of proficiency to that of a native speaker in Korea. This is probably due to the fact that English is the dominant language of the society; consequently, Korean speakers receive much more exposure to the English language than they do to Korean here in the United States.

Furthermore, this fact is due to many factors, such as lower language status, less time receiving input in Korean, less conversational interaction, or simply lack of explicit instruction. To this effect, while observing classrooms, it was found that students did not use Korean as much as English when they talked to other students. This lack of conversational interaction in Korean will lead to the lower development in Korean writing long term. In immersion education, emphasis is placed on using the second language for academic instruction as well as general communication to take advantage of children's natural language learning abilities (Genesee, 1999). Conversation interaction is not only the basis of syntactic development but also the practice of the grammatical structures (Gass, 1997). Therefore, language development proceeds as students try to engage in the interactions with peers, and their teachers. In addition, more attention should be given to the teaching methodologies of immersion because research has most often emphasized the achievement of students in immersion.

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[3] In a study on the word increase of elementary school students (Anglin, 1993), students show dramatic increase between grade 3 and 5, both speakers' morpheme increase in this study does not show that dramatic increase. In Anglin, students' vocabulary size increased by 9,000 words from first to third grade and by 20,000 words from third to fifth grade.

4. Conclusion

In this study, the Korean language development of elementary school students in Korean/English TWI was studied. Based on the findings in this study, it appears that the Korean language development of both English speakers and Korean speakers in this Korean/English bilingual immersion program progressed. The progress of both groups is comparable to each other. In TWI, therefore, English speakers seem to develop their Korean. However, the fact that Korean speakers in this program receive half of their academic instruction in Korean does not seem to have positive consequences for their Korean language development.

If this study were to be replicated in the future, it would be helpful to combine the analysis of the Korean language of students in this program with an analysis of the Korean language of students in Korea. Such a study would be more comprehensive and would likely yield more complete information.

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Crosscultural Variations in Personal Essays: Second language writing by American learners of Korean as compared to native Koreans' writing.

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Writing is a culturally bound practice, thus, cross-cultural variations are often manifested in our language use such as in vocabulary, grammar, structural pattern, and content. Are there any culturally unique behaviors that American learners of Korean show in their L2 (Korean) writing? If so, how are they similar to or different from native Koreans' writing? This study, by providing personal essays written in Korean, attempts to describe cross-cultural variations between two different writing groups: Non-heritage American learners of Korean and native Koreans. A total of eight personal essays, written by four American learners of Korean and four native Koreans were collected and examined with regards to their content. The results revealed several interesting cultural variations between the two groups. The findings will be discussed in regards to how written texts operate within different cultural systems and what implications cross-cultural rhetoric provides to the understanding of cultures, languages, and language instruction.

Introduction

The inextricably bound relationship between language and culture has been one of the most frequently discussed issues in the studies of language and language acquisition. Scholars have claimed that the exercise of language is frequently governed and shaped by the cultural norms, values, and beliefs held by the users of the discourse community (including Sapir, 1921/1961; Worlf, 1956; Hymes, 1971). Thus, by carefully observing the way a text is written and the way certain rhetorical choices are made, one can trace the cultural traits and presuppositions that are unique to the discourse community. Such culturally unique rhetorical tendencies are, however, seldom recognized by the members of the shared community, as they tend to be taken for granted. It is when compared and contrasted with the rhetoric of different cultures that those cultural features are more clearly unveiled.

The purpose of the present study is to illustrate contrastive features of rhetoric shown in the writings of two different culture groups, namely, non-heritage American learners of Korean and native Koreans. By comparing the content of personal essays written by the two groups, this study attempts to identify and explore varied cultural perspectives, including rhetorical and philosophical traditions, that constitute the basis of rhetoric.

Inquiry into crosscultural rhetoric will inform us of cultural attitudes and meanings transmitted through language and hence will deepen our understanding of how language, culture and rhetoric intersect. First, a brief sketch of some of the theoretical orientations towards the relationship between language and culture will be provided. Then, the data of Korean language texts written by native and nonnative speakers of Korean will be presented, followed by the discussion and summarization of the influence of cultural differences on the practice of writing.

Studies of Culture and Language

The inseparable connection between language and culture has been documented in a wide array of research domains including sociolinguistics (Sapir, 1921/1961; Whorf, 1956; Gumperz & Hymes, 1972), intercultural communication (Scollon & Scollon, 1995; Kincaid, 1987), sociocultural studies (Wertsch, 1991) and second language acquisition (Kaplan, 1966; Kramsch, 1991; Connor, 1996). Earlier in the 1920s, Sapir observed that language behaviors are culturally and socially determined phenomena which represent world views and beliefs of the language community. The same thesis was further elaborated on by Whorf (1956), who argued that the concepts of language are closely associated with 'thought world' of its speakers. In view of second language acquisition, the Sapir-Whorf hypothesis of the intimate link between language and culture provides a significant implication that successful communication in second language (L2) entails not only a linguistic knowledge but also a good understanding of the culture of the native community. Hymes (1972) particularly emphasized this ability of successful participation in the L2 culture as essential for L2 proficiency, referring to it as "communicative competence." A similar argument was also made by Kramsch (1991), who contended that the awareness of a second culture only facilitates the development of second language acquisition.

The view of language as a symbolic representation of culture also blends well with the perspectives of sociohistorical and sociocultrual theorists including Vygotsky and Bakhtin. Human utterances, according to Bakhtin, whether in spoken or written form, often demonstrate one's own cultural history, identity and personality (Wertsch, 1991). Human mental functioning, according to sociocultural theorists, is always culturally situated, thus, individual writers bring in their unique cultural and historical voices in their writings.

In the context of second language writing, the crosscultural differences between first and target language have long been researched, but mostly at the word or sentence levels. It was not until Robert Kaplan (1966) that recognition was raised regarding the differences between languages at the text level. Kaplan claimed that writings by second language learners significantly differed from writings by native speakers in terms of paragraph organization and rhetorical paradigms. His observations of close relationship between rhetoric and culture contributed to the opening of the studies of crosscultural rhetoric, which has been thus far known as "Contrastive Rhetoric." Recently, study of contrastive rhetoric has rapidly expanded its perspectives and foci, investigating a wide array of types of writing including academic texts, newspapers, reflective essays and professional writing (Connor, 1996). Today, the scope of contrastive rhetoric is not limited to the rhetorical preference in discourse organization but is extended to the cultural preferences in the use of language in general.

The Study

The data

Writing samples in this study were all written in Korean and derived from four non-heritage American learners of Korean (three males and one female) and four native Koreans (two males and two females). The length of formal instruction in Korean that American learners received varied from 150 hours to 450 hours, which approximate 1 to 3 years. Four native Korean participants in this study were graduate students enrolled in a U.S. university whose stay in the United States ranged from 1.5 to 3 years. The topic of the writing task was "My first Love" and was given as an assignment at home so that the learners of Korean can refer to a dictionary if necessary.

Limitations

This study involves a small number of samples, which may show a restricted evaluation of contrastive rhetoric between two cultures. Also to be noted is the fact that even within the same culture individuals vary in their ways of expressing ideas depending on the rhetorical genres, tasks and audiences. Therefore, this study should not be interpreted as a generalization of certain homogeneous cultural properties within a group but should rather be regarded as some of the possible cultural commonalities existing within a speech community. In this study, nonnative Korean speakers' L2 proficiency levels were not taken into consideration. Therefore, it is unknown whether the rhetorical differences are partially attributable to developmental factors or not.

Text Analysis

The focus of text analysis in this study was on the content of the essays, exploring the features of rhetorical behaviors in each group. Five arbitrary subcategories were established as segmental formulas to compare and evaluate the essays of the two groups: (1) *Introductory Remarks*: the beginning of the story; (2) *Identification*: identification of characters; (3) *Specific Episodes*: the degree of provision of specific episodes; (4) *Emotional Expression*: the degree of emotional expression; (5) *Closing remarks*: the ending of the story. The identified rhetorical features will be discussed in conjunction with some of the commonly held cultural traditions of Koreans as compared to those of Anglo-Americans.

Results and Discussion

Essays by native and nonnative Korean speakers demonstrated both similarities and differences. As the essay concerned personal experience of life, there was a wide variation in regards to rhetorical behaviors, styles, length and depth. It was also found that there were some culturally unique characteristics belonging to each group. In general, similarity was shown in the organization of paragraphs. Both native Korean (NK) and nonnative Korean (NNK) essays were written with an Introduction (who and how they met), Body (what happened) and Ending (how they ended up). Most of the essays followed this chronological order. In terms of content, however, more diverse cultural variations were displayed.

1. Introductory Remarks

At the beginning of the essays, NNK essays generally started with who their first love was or what the background of encountering his/her first love was. Although NK essays also started with an introduction of who their first love was, in three of four essays, this introduction was preceded by some kind of seasonal comments. For examples:

> *NNK* *(1) This is my first love story. She was a minister's daughter: (2) On the way to kindergarten, I met my first love on the bus: (3) I met Heather when I was a high school sophomore.*

> *NK* *(1) It was one sunny spring day when I first met him. Probably it was at the end of May, since blood-colored azaleas were gradually withering: (2) The time was flower-blossom spring in 1985 and I was out with friends on a blind date: (3) My first love was, starting in 1985 around autumn and ending the following year in spring, a beautiful, like lyrics of song, and sad as much as it was beautiful, incident.*

It appears that Korean writers often trace back to their old memories by invoking visual images of seasonal backgrounds. In fact, it is not uncommon to find seasonal greetings or appreciation of the beauty of nature in Korean rhetoric such as in letters and personal essays, while this may not be the case in Anglo-American rhetoric. Similar observation was also made in Jenkins and Hinds' 1987 study, in which the authors pointed to the use of seasonal greetings in the introduction of Japanese business letters as a culturally peculiar formula that distinguished them from the letters written by Western writers. As in the case of Japanese rhetoric, seasonal comments are a formulaic expression quite frequently used in Korean rhetoric, which reflects the close relationship of Korean culture with nature.

2. Identification

In describing personal relationships, American writers, in contrast to Korean writers, explicitly identified who their first loves were by revealing their names. All of the four essays written by Americans identified names of their personal acquaintances, while none of the essays written by native Koreans did. Rather than overtly identifying personal names, native Korean writers referred to their first loves as 'she/he,' 'the most memorable person,' 'that person,' 'min-dle-rae (dandelion)' and so on, but never by their real names. For example:

> *NNK* *(1) Her name was Jessica: (2) Her name was Amber: (3) Doctors said Jinkyung would recover in two years: (4) My first love's name was Heather MacMillian.*

> *NK* *(1) Among the many memories of love, the most memorable person is probably my first love. That person...: (2) Right after high school, when I was trying to adapt to college life, I met him: (3) My friends named her "min-dle-rae" (dandelion) since she was very pretty just like the flower dandelion: (4) We were in the same year and same department at college.*

It is interesting to note that American writers are not reluctant to identify personal names, while this may be considered to native Koreans as too private and thus embarrassing to reveal. By using pronouns or nouns in addressing a character in the essays, native Korean writers tended to avoid risks of revealing personal information, which they consider quite unnecessary to identify in this type of essay. For Americans, however, revealing one's name is far from embarrassing, but rather is considered as more factual, real, natural and believable, and therefore enhances the authenticity of the essay.

3. Specific Episodes

The body part of the essays generally consisted of specific incidents that occurred in the course of the writers' relationship with their partners. Both American and Korean writers provided some specific episodes they had, such as:

> *NNK* *(1) One night I saw Jessica when I was scribbling on the church wall. Although Jessica saw me, she didn't get upset with me.*

> *Instead, she smiled at me and invited me to dinner; (2) Everyday, my boyfriend brought a lunch box for me to my high school. He brought Bulgogi, Kimchi, and Nakcci. After our first date, he drew a picture of me; (3) We often exercised together. We dated until the third grade. I moved to Colorado. Two years later I came back. I went to her house to see her.*

> *NK* *(1) Having been interested in college broadcasting, I applied for new freshmen recruitment of college broadcasting system and took the entrance exam for it. To my surprise, I encountered him at the exam; (2) Sometimes when he had real hard times, he just disappeared somewhere, and it made me so worried about him that I walked around all over looking for him; (3) One day, when we had a dormitory open house festival, I invited min-dle-rae to the festival.*

What is interesting about the specific episodes, however, is that the American writers freely portrayed conflicts or negative events that happened to them, and even provided very confidential information when describing the episodes. Three out of four American essays specifically described negative incidents that occurred during their association with others in a very explicit and elaborate manner, such as:

> *NNK* *(1) Jessica was a real bad girl. She smoked and drank beer. When I went out with her, I behaved much worse than I usually would. We threw a stone and broke a window and also punctured many tires with a knife. Jessica was worse than me. She stole money form the church. She was eventually caught and sent to a reformatory school; (2) Nobody, except me, knew that Heather was doing drugs. Once Heather had a party. She didn't invite me. While doing drugs at the party, she got caught by her parents. Later, Heather attempted suicide by taking an overdose of sleeping pills.*

From the examples above, American writers do not seem to feel constrained to discuss personal problems like 'stealing things,' 'doing drugs,' and 'sent to a reformatory school,' while to Koreans, such "revelations" are considered very embarrassing and shameful which may degrade the dignity of the named persons as well as the writers themselves who associated with them. Indeed, Korean writers either did not describe negative incidents or did them in a very limited detail such as "*We found ourselves in conflict bit by bit. Love is indeed something that you don't really know,*" and "*I found it difficult to understand him.*" Perhaps, avoiding any statements of negative incidents is attributable to Koreans' desire not to lose one's face and self-respect as well as those of others. The cultural norm of "saving the face" of ones and others seems to influence Korean writers to make their statement purposely evasive rather than to provide detailed factual information.

4. Degree of Emotional Expression

Another rhetorical characteristic distinguished in the comparison of two essay groups concerns the relative degree of emotional expression. It was noted that American writers described their personal feelings of love more overtly. In describing their feelings of love, nearly all American writers used the word, 'love' directly toward their partners such as "I loved her/him," and "We were in love." In addition, American writers tended to express their emotions profusely as in such an example, 'felt absolute perfect love and shed tears of happiness.' In direct contrast, no Korean writers used the word 'love' for their feelings toward their partners. Instead, native Korean writers used either less direct words such as 'like' or substitutive words to replace 'love' such as 'think about,' 'heart beating,' and 'heart running.'

NNK *(1) To my surprise, she embraced me at first sight. At that moment, my heart felt absolute perfect love for the first time. We shed the tears of happiness together: (2) I fell in love with Jessica at first sight: (3) I sometimes loved him but sometimes hated him.*

NK *(1) I always thought about her in the class, whether it rained or snowed: (2) Before long, I began to like the guy: (3) I don't know ......why my heart was always beating when I saw him: (3) My heart was running, no, flying for her.*

In general, direct or blunt expression of 'love' is less commonly used among Koreans. However, in a number of different ways, a Korean writer can convey his/her feelings of love avoiding the use of the word, 'love.' Korean's reluctance to directly express 'love' seems inextricably related to their perspective on love, which may be different from that of Americans. To Koreans, love is something to cherishe in their heart rather than to explicitly utter. What is important is to let the other read your heart, rather than hear it, because uttering love does not have much meaning. However, American perspectives reflect that both expressing (verbally) and feeling one's heart is equally important. A reason for this contrastive perspective can be attributed to the Confucian philosophy, which is still strongly rooted in Koreans' minds as it is in other East Asian countries. According to Yum (1987), Confucianism teaches one to suppress his/her emotion because it is believed that "human passions are the causes that impede the pursuit of knowledge and truth" (p. 79). She further states that:

> [In Confucianism], one is taught to curb one's anger, hide one's sorrow, and not to be too obvious in joy. One is not supposed to display one's affection to his/her spouse in public and much less in the presence of one's elders. ....Under Confucian ethics, to reveal one's emotion readily is to indulge in human passion, which is a serous deviation from the proper conduct (Yum, 1987: 79).

In cultures heavily influenced by Confucianism, among which is Korea, direct expression of emotion is not sanctioned but expected to be controlled. Another possible account to interpret this rhetorical phenomenon is the influence of Buddhism on Korean culture and rhetoric. In the discourse influenced by Buddhism, according to Tsujimura (1997), "higher perceptions of the truth," can be communicated through "mind to mind" rather than through "million words" (p. 118). Yum (1997) also comments that "implicit communication and the ability to discern hidden meaning" is a virtuous skill in the discourse of Buddhist tradition (p. 83). Thus, in Korean rhetoric, which was influenced by both Confucianism and Buddhism, emotions of love seem to be communicated often intuitively rather than verbally, whereas emotions of love are expressed and conveyed both directly and indirectly in Western cultures.

5. Closing Remarks

In the ending of the essays, American writers made statements regarding the final end of their relationship, providing specific reasons of why their relationship had trouble and how it ended, for example:

> *NNK* *(1) Being afraid of my entering army soon.......She said she couldn't marry me.......My first love's mother told me that Amber had a big accident the previous month and she passed away. So I lost my first love forever; (2) She was caught and sent to a reformatory. Form then on, I decided not to meet her. So I became a good boy; (3) When I asked her that we were breaking up, she said "yes," and left me. I cried for three days; (4) We often fought. Once we broke up......One month later......he had a car accident.*

Korean essays, on the other hand, appeared to be less straightforward in providing reasons for ending the relationship, and frequently took unsure or conjecturing attitudes using phrases like 'I don't know why,' and 'maybe.' Korean writers, in general, closed their essays in a way of leaving things covered or still unanswered.

NK *(1) I gradually become disappointed with him. Maybe I myself changed or maybe I became to know too much of the world. When I found it difficult to understand him, I became disappointed in myself too; (2) I don't know why she was getting far from me and one day she fired this atomic bomb message that let's stop meeting. My heart was exploded into pieces. I struggled myself in a desolate desert for some while. People say that first love never comes true. Maybe that was why?; (3) If I say that the reason why my first love ended just as a memory of first love was due to the Korean social structure and political chaos in the 80s, would it be a too much exaggeration? I don't have the answer.*

In the above examples, Korean writers expressed the conflicts they had, focusing more on themselves, either describing their inner states or attributing the fault to themselves as in examples like 'maybe I myself changed or maybe I became to know too much of the world.' Narrative focus of Korean essays is more on recounting their internal feeling about what happened rather than on what actually happened.

Another interesting observation was that two Korean writers ended their essays in a form of a question, which was directed to both themselves and readers such as "People say that first love never comes true. Maybe that was why?" and "If I say that......, would it be too much of an exaggeration?" These kinds of questions draw a sense of empathy from readers, bringing in the readers' participation in the story. From Korean's perspective, the use of a narrative question presented in a way that invites a reader' opinions is an effective rhetorical strategy which often arouses a reader's compassion and speculation. Through such a technique, not only a writer can reflect one's experience, but also a reader can actively join in the story.

Conclusion

This study lends support for the close connection between rhetoric and culture, namely, the idea that rhetorical expressions and tendencies are in subtle ways imbued with cultural values of a language community. While this study is merely an exploratory level of description, several interesting contrasts between two cultures (i.e., American and Korean) suggest that one's sociocultural background plays a significant role in the construction of rhetoric. Analysis of the essays revealed that American writers were less constrained in providing personal details, and more candidly expressed their feelings, associating their personal experiences with specific episodes both negative and positive.

While native Korean writers also displayed their personal feelings along with some episodes, their accounts tended to be less straightforward and less explicit, avoiding direct or overt statements. In general, native Korean essays were more abundant with indirectness and implicitness than the essays written by Americans. Rather than providing clear reasons or explanations of events, native Korean writers seemed to often leave things rather unstated, thus, allowing readers to intuitively catch the meaning between the lines. Perhaps closely related to this are the disciplines of Eastern thought and philosophy such as Confucianism and Buddhism which strongly govern the Korean mind. It is said that both Confucianism and Buddhism had played a significant role in the development of Korean culture, and have, to a great extent, influenced the thought and behavioral patterns of Korean (Korean Overseas Information Service, 1993). In line with this, Yum (1987) observed that, in Korean rhetoric, ambiguity, vagueness, and mutual understanding with readers carries a higher value than overt statements. In understanding Korean rhetoric, therefore, one may need to be aware of such social and cultural milieu of Korean language.

What implications, then, does comparative/contrastive rhetoric holds for the teachers of second and foreign languages? Instructional methodologies for second language writing have been primarily concerned with linguistic skills of writing. With a knowledge of crosscultural rhetoric, classroom teachers can provide L2 learners with opportunities to gain insight into L2 culture embedded in the texts as well as opportunities to understand native Korean's cultural expectation in writing. This is not necessarily to suggest that L2 learners should follow or replicate the referential framework of the target language and culture, but is rather to suggest that learners of a second language should develop cultural sensitivity to second language as well as positive and appreciating attitudes towards different cultural perspectives.

While rhetorical differences certainly exist across cultures, it should be also acknowledged that there exists a significant degree of rhetorical commonalities and resemblances across cultures. Particularly, the degree of rhetorical differences seems to vary depending on the types and genres of writing. It was reported that few crosscultural differences were found between published scientific papers (Mohan and Lo, 1985) whereas differences were more identifiable in the reflective essays written by different culture groups (Bickner and Peyasantiwong, 1988). Another point to be remembered is that, as Kubota (1998: 74) pointed out, each writer is unique in his/her ability, experience, intention in writing, thus, individuals even within the same culture, may vary in their rhetorical colors and voices.

Nevertheless, studies of crosscultural rhetoric still holds worth in that it fosters and ensures the successful and meaningful interaction with members of L2 culture. While differences in the rhetorical patterns should not be generalized as a clear-cut dichotomous phenomenon between two cultures, recognition should certainly be raised regarding the cultural variations in rhetoric, in order to better understand and appreciate the writings written by members of the L2 community. As Connor (2001) puts, "language inquiry, which includes comparison and contrasts, is a place to start learning about linguistic and cultural habits" (p. 78), and language teachers can be the one to take the lead in this avenue.

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APPENDIX

English translation of eight pieces of writing samples written in Korean is as follows:

A. Essays written by Americans:

Essay 1

On the way to kindergarten, I met my first love on the bus. Her name was Amber. Her hair was very long and had a bright chestnut color. Her voice was so beautiful that it sounded like a singing bird. She was quite smart. And she was very athletic and outgoing. So we often exercised together. We dated until the third grade.

After the third grade, I moved to Colorado State. Two years later I came back. I went to her house to see her. At first sight, we embraced each other. We felt that we were still in love with each other. So, we dated for another two years, but I had to move to another place again. So we had to separate. But, we still loved each other.

Six years later, when I returned, I went to the same high school with her. Again, I went to my first love's place to meet her. To my surprise, she recognized me at first sight and hugged me. At that moment, my heart felt absolute perfect love for the first time. We shed the tears of happiness together. The next day, we talked for a long time. This was the last year that we dated. After high school and before I entered the army, I asked her, "Will you marry me?" But, being afraid of my entering army soon, she said, "No. I am sorry. I am concerned about my mother and brother, so I would like to stay here. If I marry you, I will have to go somewhere else." So she said she couldn't marry me.

And then, after I completed my initial military training, I called my first love. My first love's mother told me that Amber had a big accident the previous month and she passed away. I told my first love's mother that I was very sorry. That night, I shed the tears of sorrow all night long. So I lost my first love forever.

Essay 2

This is my first love story. She was a minister's daughter and her name was Jessica. I did not know that the minister had a daughter, but one day I saw Jessica at church. After living in a dormitory at her school, she came home. She had black hair and big eyes of sky-blue color, so she was very pretty. I fell in love with Jessica at my first sight of her.

It was when I was thirteen years old. I was mischievous. I did many bad mischievous behaviors. But I thought that Jessica would like a good boy because she was a daughter of a minister. So I decided to be a good boy. Every Sunday, I went to Sunday school and did not play mischief at all. But, Jessica ignored me all the time. I gave up love and played mean and mischief again.

One night, I saw Jessica when I was scribbling on the church wall. Although Jessica saw me, she wasn't upset at me. Instead, she smiled at me and invited me to the dinner. Jessica liked only bad boys. Her father, the minister, did not like me, but Jessica went out with me in secret.

Jessica was a real bad girl. She smoked and drank beer. When I went out with her, I behaved much worse than I usually would. We threw a stone and broke a window and also punctured many tires with a knife. Jessica was worse than me. She stole money from the church. She was eventually caught and sent to a reformatory school. From then on, I decided not to meet her. So I became a good boy.

Essay 3

I don't know about love. There was only one boyfriend to me. He was my boyfriend for two years. I thought that I loved him sometimes, but I also hated him sometimes, too. I fought with him many times. I hate fighting so much. Earlier, I probably loved him.

What is love? One of my friends told me that if you can die for somebody, then you truly love that person. Maybe she was right. I think that Americans are usually very passionate about love. But I heard that Koreans are usually not. I am a very passionate person but I think it is not always good to be passionate. Because you can make hasty decisions.

My boyfriend was also a very passionate person. Because of that, we fought a lot. When I first met him, he was very nice to me. Everyday, he brought a lunch box for me at my high school. He brought Bulgogi, Kimchi, and Nakcci. After our first date, he drew a picture of me. On weekends, we went to Florida, Chicago, and Virginia for skiing. We went to many different places. We also went to Korea together.

My boyfriend later moved to my college because of me. Before he came to my college, we did not fight much, but after he came, we often fought. Once we broke up. And then we went out again. One month later after I went out with him again, however, he had a car accident. He was in coma for one month. Doctors said that Jinkyung would recover in two years, but even though he would recover, he wouldn't be the same as he was before the accident.

I experienced a lot with him. He was my first boyfriend. Still, I am not very sure whether I really loved him. I might know with time.

Essay 4

My first love's name was Heather MacMillian. I met Heather when I was a high school sophomore. Heather was a high school senior. Heather was a good student. She was also very pretty. Nobody except me knew that Heather was doing drugs. But I didn't do drugs.

We dated for four months. One time, Heather had a party. But she didn't invite me. While she was doing drugs at the party, she got caught by her parents.

Later, Heather attempted suicide, by taking an overdose of sleeping pills. She stayed at a hospital for two months. When she got out of the hospital, she did not want to talk to me. When I went up to her at school and asked her, "Are we breaking up?" she said "yes." And then she left me. I cried for three days.

B. Essays written by Koreans

Essay 5

It was one sunny spring day when I first met him. Probably it was at the end of May, since blood-colored azaleas were gradually withering. Right after high school, when I was trying to adapt to college life, I met him. Walking the hills of the college campus, I saw him and immediately I felt like my heart was struck by something. I asked other girls if they felt the same thing looking at him, but he was somebody only to my eyes.

Having been interested in college broadcasting, I applied for new freshmen recruitment of college broadcasting system and took the entrance exam for it. To my surprise, I encountered him at the exam. I don't know why he looked so handsome to me and why my heart was always beating when I saw him. Next week, the names of people who passed were announced and we both became members of the college broadcasting system.

At the welcome party for freshmen members of college broadcasting, I got to know about him. He was a student of the economics department. From then on, we had frequent opportunities to be together. Just like any college students in the early nineties, we were indulged in ideology and discussed Marxism and materialism with overnight seminars. We also prepared together for group demonstration against anti-democratic government. He was very fervent participant in demonstrations. In the front line of demonstration, he threw gasoline bombs and didn't mind risking himself for the defense of the demonstration. I supported him by my heart and used to pray for him for his safety. We were good friends and comforted each other at times of trouble.

Meanwhile, he was arrested and imprisoned for his fight against anti-democratic government. With heartbreaking pains, I didn't know what to do. I visited him at the prison often and talked to him. In time, when I was seeing him, I found myself different from before. Maybe I changed or maybe I became to know too much of the world, I gradually became disappointed with him. When I found it difficult to understand him, I became disappointed in myself too and he was becoming a different meaning to me.

Essay 6

For about thirty years of my life, I think that I, indeed, liked many people. To be honest, I cannot remember any time that I did not like somebody. Among the many memories of love, the most memorable person, he is probably my first love.

It was when I was nineteen. After graduating high school, when my other friends were in college, I was preparing for the college entrance exam again. On the first day that I went to a private institute for college entrance exam, I saw him. In a lecture room, he was thinking something by the window. His first impression was somehow familiar to me. I felt like that I met him somewhere before. I don't know why but he looked very sad to me. I later figured out that his mom passed away and he was often thinking of his mom looking outside over the window.

Before long, I began to like the guy. Even though I could never confess to him that I liked him (maybe because I was pressured by study or I was a very introverted person.), I was just grateful that I could see him in class.

Just like a story in third-class love novels, he liked a friend of mine, even though she had a boyfriend. She was a very pretty looking girl with a beautiful smile in her somewhat pale looking face.

The person that I liked used to open his heart to me talking about his agony. Sometimes when he had real hard times, he just disappeared somewhere, and it made me so worried about him that I walked around all over looking for him.

Meanwhile, the college entrance exam date was approaching. We applied for different schools and waited for the results. A few months passed and one day I had a phone call from him. He thanked me for being a friend for one year and wished for my happiness.

My first year in college was very tough for me. I spent many days without any blind date at all. Later, I heard news from friends that he went to the military, and that he completed military service, and he was going to be engaged to a woman.

Still I don't have a boyfriend. I don't want to say that it is because of him. I just haven't found the right person yet.

Essay 7

The time was flower-blossom spring in 1985 and I was out with friends on a blind date. The most beautiful girl in the group became my partner of the blind date.

I always thought about her in class, whether it rained or snowed. I was always a confident and verbal person, but in front of her, words just didn't come out. I wonder why. She occupied my heart. My friends named her "min-dle-rae"(dandelion) since she was very pretty just like flower, dandelion. When other friends were going out on different blind dates, I just refused it thinking over her.

One day, when we had a dormitory open house festival, I invited min-dle-rae to the festival. I called her with trembling heart wondering that she would say yes or no. Min-dle-rae said that she would come and it made me feel flying in the sky.

In festival, I participated in Korean traditional wrestling match. I won many rounds and finally reached the final. I had a graduate student in the final match. He was a tall strong guy trained with judo. I won once and he won once, so it was a tie with one more game left. My friends cheered me loudly. They shouted to me that min-dle-rae was coming. That moment, my strength sprang up all of sudden, and I defeated him.

Even though I liked min-dle-rae a lot, she didn't seemed attracted to me any more in time. I don't know why she was getting far from me and one day she fired this atomic bomb message that let's stop meeting. My heart was exploded into pieces. I struggled myself in a desolate desert for some while. People say that first love never comes true. Maybe that was why?

Essay 8

My first love was, starting from 1985 around Autumn and ending the following year in Spring, a beautiful, like lyrics of song, and sad as much as it was beautiful, incident. Even after we parted, the fact that I could always see her was to me both joy and pain. We were in the same year and same department at college. It was so called 'triangle relationship' among her, me, and a guy, who now became her husband. Although I first started relationship with her, she chose him. This later gave me a feeling of failure, painful days, and even led me once to decide to ever live alone.

To me, first love was closely linked with sociopolitical situation in 80s. 80s in Korean implies many things. It was a transitory period for Korea to move from a military autocracy to a democratic society. As it was frequent with other third world countries, the process to democracy in Korea was also led by college students. Most college students couldn't avoid this democratic movement, which, in one way or another, dominated one's college life and culture. Love was also considered meaningful when it was at least helpful for democratic movement. He was an active participant in the movement. But I was not. I probably wanted to resist another domination created by student movement. Back then, she needed a person who can strongly lead her and be with her for movement. I was not that kind of person, but he was. For them, love was bound of two comrades, but for me love was just a romance.

I still believe that if it had not been 80s, my love had existed only one time. If I say that the reason why my first love ended just as a memory of first love was due to the Korean social structure and political chaos in the 80s, would it be a too much exaggeration? I don't have the answer.

Reflective Journal Writing in the Korean II Class

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1. Introduction

Language teaching consists of four components: listening, reading, speaking, and writing. All four skills are crucial for the development of a language. It is also the same for teaching a foreign language. However, writing is often less emphasized especially for lower level students, due to the fact that students are not comfortable writing in the foreign language . In addition, either instructors are often not confident enough to evaluate beginner students' writings in the foreign language class or they may underestimate the importance of teaching writing skills at the lower level, or both.

In the area of teaching English as a Second Language (ESL), the use of journals to teach writing skills in the class has been widely researched. The research has shown that there are many advantages in journal writing for students as well as for their teachers. However, the use of journal writing seems to be limited to the area of ESL, which has not been widely applied to other foreign languages.

I have implemented journal-writing exercises, especially with the use of reflective/ interactive/dialogue journal writing, in a lower Korean language class (i.e., Korean II). In this paper, I outline the strengths and limitations in administering journal writing, as well as several guidelines and practical considerations.

II. Literature Review

Teaching writing in a foreign language can be achieved in several ways. For example, Raimes (1993) summarized six approaches to the teaching of writing in ESL classes: the controlled-to-free approach, the free-writing approach, the paragraph-pattern approach, the grammar-syntax-organization approach, the communicative approach, and the process approach. Each approach has its own rationale, goals, purposes, emphasis, strategies, and evaluation methods.

Recently, it has been widely attempted to use journal writing to develop writing skills in ESL programs. Journals can be divided into several categories depending on the main goals and foci in teaching writing. Tompkins (2000) presented six types of journals: personal, dialogue, reading logs, learning logs, double-entry, simulated and the specific explanations are provided as follows (p.171).

Personal journals – Students write about events in their own lives and other topics of special interest in personal journals. They are most private type of journal.
Dialogue journals – Students are involved in interactive, conversational in tone in journal writing and provide the opportunity for real communication. Journals are shared with the teacher or a classmate.
Reading logs – Students respond to stories, poems, and informational books they are reading in reading logs.
Learning logs – Students write as part of subject matters. They write quickwrites, draw diagrams, take notes, and write vocabulary words.
Double-entry journals – Students divide each page of their journals into two columns and write different types of information in each column.
Simulated journals – Students assume the role of a book character or a historical personality and write journal entries from that person's viewpoint.

Also, Peregoy & Boyle (1997) distinguished journals based on the criteria of who you share the journals with: personal journals, dialogue journals, and buddy journals.

Among the several journal types, the dialogue journal is most widely used in the language classroom these days due to its nature---reflective, interactive, and written conversation (Mlynarczyk, 1998; Sanders, 2000). The ultimate goal in the reflective journal is 'communication'. Thus, errors in the journal are allowed, and teachers and students are engaged in the authentic communication by giving students a unique opportunity to use writing to express personal and meaningful ideas. Also, the content in dialogue journals is student-controlled, and the teacher is responding to 'the content', not to the errors.

The main characteristics of the reflective, dialogue journal are: students write regularly and their teacher responds to the content, not the form of the writing. It focuses on the development of fluency and authentic conversation on paper, not the correction of the grammar or the expressions, which is the goal of this exercise. It is personal because the conversation between the writer and the reader is meaningful. The entries are responded to, and students are given the freedom to choose the topic most of the times.

To administer the reflective journal, teachers must consider a few issues related to ways to improve writing skills in a language class. Since there are several kinds of writing skills, e.g., structuring skills, spelling, punctuation and capitalization skills, learning skills; reference skills, and handwriting skills (Tompkins, 2000), the instructor has to decide on the focus, skills and goals expected in the reflective journal writing. In addition to emphasizing skills, the instructor also has to think about the ways to respond to the students' writings (Anson, 1999; Elbow, 1999; Sanders, 2000; Sommers, 1999; Straub, 1999; White, 1999). The instructor also has to consider different levels, e.g., conceptual, structural, sentential, and lexical levels (Daiker, 1999).

The question of whether the instructor should correct students' grammar mistakes and how much the mistakes should be corrected is still open to debate (Ferris, 1999; Truscott, 1999). Each decision and position has advantages and disadvantages. Therefore, the instructor has the authority and autonomy to decide on the focusing skills, evaluation method, and strategies.

As for the advantages in using journal writing, students can relate personal experiences to the language class, react and interpret, and record their thoughts and information in the foreign language. Students mostly write about events in their own lives and other topics of special interest in the journals, and they write to share with the teacher or classmates. Teachers respond as interested readers, often asking questions and offering comments about their writings. Those comments range from the correction of grammatical points to the interaction or reflection of students' writings, based on the instructor's emphasis of the class.

III. Procedures

1. Participants

While teaching Korean II courses at University of Southern California for the past five years, I have used the reflective journal writing only for the three most recent semesters. The students who were involved in the journal writing were undergraduate students attending USC, and most of them were Korean-Americans who were born in the U.S or immigrated at an early age. The maximum enrollment number in a language class at USC is 20, so my classes averaged between 15 and 20 students in enrollment.

The characteristics of the students in the Korean II class were greatly varied in terms of the years of exposure to the Korean language and their proficiency levels. In other words, some students were confident in speaking and listening in Korean but had hard time in writing correctly and read fluently. Most students showed unevenly developed Korean language proficiency levels, while others had just moved from the Korean I class and registered for next level course, and had been learning Korean only for several months (i.e., they could be categorized as real beginners). As the instructor of the course, I had to cover the textbook, and at the same time I had to understand who needed to develop which skills. It was easy to realize that the students had different proficiency levels, diverse interests, and personalities in the same class. To deal with the variation of the diverse students' characteristics, I tried individualized, communicative, and interactive approaches to develop their writing skills on a personal basis.

2. Administration

Students turned in the reflective journals written in Korean on a weekly basis, and I commented on students' writings each time in Korean or in Korean and English throughout the semester. Most of the students turned in their journal around 15 times in a semester. The journal was given as homework and the students were supposed to turn in their journals every Friday to the instructor. Basically, the instructor read students' journals, and corrected the expressions and commented on their writing, and gave them back to the students the next Monday.

3. Evaluation

The purpose of the writing activities in the journal was to help students to develop their writing skills through their personal and meaningful experiences and writings, and to understand students better and help them accordingly through written communication. In that sense, I didn't grade their journals but I gave a credit when they turned in the journals regularly. The portion of the journal writing was 10% of the total grade, and I gave them full points if students turned it in on time whether the journal was long or short, the journal entry was in Korean or in English with Korean, or the journal had many or few mistakes. The students told me later that they liked the idea that the journal was not graded because they were less likely to be anxious about making mistakes while writing in Korean. Instead of grading the students' writing, I wrote my comments. I basically corrected the mistakes in spelling and expressions, with the use of a green pen, while reading their writings, but the correction of the grammar and expressions were not my main focus. Instead, at the end of each student's writing, I wrote friendly comments mostly on the content of the writing, not forms. I also summarized 3-5 key expressions that students had incorrectly used, or wrote in the journal. I was trying to focus mainly on communication with students through the journal writing, not on the correction of the grammar. My comments were mostly personal reactions, questions, and suggestions to the student's writing.

4. Format

The amount that the students wrote and the format of the journal were totally left up to the students. Some students could write almost half a page in Korean, whereas some could write only 3 or 5 sentences each time. Some students wrote their journals as they would a diary, while some preferred a written dialogue/conversation with the instructor. I respected their personal preferences in the format of journal writing and responded to according to their styles. I didn't set the strict rule that the journal should be written only in Korean. Instead, I explained the purpose of the journal and asked them to try to write it in Korean. I also allowed the students to write in English names, places, or unfamiliar words in Korean.

5. Topic Selection

Students could write on topics related to textbook materials or personal interests. Basically, students selected the journal topic by themselves while I sometimes assigned them specific topics that were closely related to the lessons covered in the textbook at that time. For example, when students were learning about topics such as 'Writing a card', 'Shopping', or 'College life' I asked them to write in the journal on topics such as 'Write a birthday card to your parents', 'If you have $1,000 how would you spend it?' or 'Please give advice for a freshman who is thinking of joining a club on campus.' About one third of the total topics were specifically assigned from the instructor as described above, the rest of them were chosen by the students. In terms of the topics that students personally selected, they varied (e.g., about family, friends, hobbies, weekend plans, religion, an ideal life, the favorites, future plans, a job, and achievements and frustrations), and most of the time, the topics were not related to the lessons covered in Korean II class.

6. Students' Responses

Students showed difficulty in writing and seemed uncomfortable at first because they had never been asked to write in Korean before. The most difficult part in the journal writing in Korean seemed to focus on the difference between sounds in spoken and written Korean. Since they were at the Korean II level, some students used "Koreanized" (transliterated) versions of English words. For example, one of the students expressed '오늘 빅뉴스를 가졌어요.' (I received big news today) and his writing was good making only a few spelling mistakes throughout the journal assignment. When students were not sure of the expressions in Korean, some marked them and asked me to check. In the beginning of the journal assignment, students showed frustration especially when they thought that they were making too many spelling mistakes and they were unsure of the expressions in Korean. Due to the fact that I didn't emphasize the forms but the content of the writing in my comments, the students eventually became less obsessed with the mistakes.

In addition, students felt more comfortable as time passed and enjoyed their achievments. When comparing the amount of the writing they did in the beginning to the later part, the students were writing more and making fewer mistakes. Most of all, while the instructor was emphasizing the conversational nature and communicating to each student with an individualized topic over an extended period of time, the instructor could understand students better and found appropriate ways to help each student develop their Korean skills. As for the students, the writing activity helped reflect their thoughts and emotions and give a personal meaning to the Korean class so that the students put more energy into their language studies.

IV. Strengths and Weaknesses of Reflective Journal Writing

The interactive and reflective journal writing helped to improve the beginning students' writing competency in Korean, and to engender a positive attitude and confidence toward writing in Korean. It also helped the instructor to understand the areas that students needed improvement in. In addition, the journal writing helped to build a bond between the student and the teacher in class.

However, there is no single best method of teaching writing and responding to students' writings. The reflective journal writing also has limitations and weaknesses. Due to the personal interaction with each student, reading and commenting on the journal takes extra time for the instructor. Also, each student needs help in different areas of writing skills, and the instructor has to be aware of various strategies to deal with those concerns. The instructor always has to keep one eye on the content of students' writings, otherwise students will be easily frustrated and lose interest in the writing activity. The summary of the strengths and weakness in the reflective journal writing is provided as follows.

1. Strengths

- The instructor can give an individual response to students with varying proficiency levels and interests.
- The instructor can provide a good idea that an individual student needs to be improved. The teacher can find out an appropriate assistance or suggestion for the student.
- Through regular written dialogues, the instructor and each student can build genuine and strong relationships and have increased individualized contacts with each of the students.
- The writing activity can be extended to students' lives so that the class can be meaningful to students.
- The students can feel more confident and successful in writing in Korean.

2. Weaknesses

- It is a burden on the instructor to respond to each student's writing.
- The reactions and comments that an instructor gives to students are greatly influenced by the instructor's individual styles and personality.
- Since there are no clear, strict rules to respond to students' writing, it is not hard to be distracted from the major goals, principles, and focus of the writing activity.
- The benefits of the reflective journal writing cannot be shown in a short period of time.

V. Guidelines and Considerations to administer the Reflective Journal Writing

1. Guidelines for instructors

- Do not try to correct every single mistake; instead limit your corrections to 3-5 major mistakes each time.
- Refrain from criticism. Encourage and be positive. (Use a green pen instead of red). Don't' make them afraid of making mistakes. Make them feel free to write.
- Try to relate your comment to students' lives all the time. Make the writing task meaningful to students
- Be aware of various language skills. Find appropriate skills for each student.
- Remember that the main focus should be on communication, not on correction.
- Provide enough comments. Be personable and caring.
- Let students choose their own topics. Give them authority and autonomy.
- Don't judge their writing, but react to the writing.
- Don't grade their writing.
- Don't forget the purpose of the journal activity. Relate it to the goals of your Korean class.

2. Practical Consideration to Administer the Reflective Journal Writing in Class

- The time it takes for an instructor to respond to student's writing: Allow 10-20 minutes to provide a comment for each student's writing.
- The evaluation criteria: Decide how to evaluate students' writing. Do I use a checklist, scoring rubric, score (100/90/80...) or grade (A/B/C...), or just comments?
- The strategy for handling errors: Do I just check the mistakes, correct all mistakes, correct only what I have covered in class, or limit the corrections to certain aspects?
- The format and the frequency of assigning the journal activity: Do I administer it as homework, in class activity, or both? And how often?

VI. Conclusion

The reflective journal writing has many advantages to help develop students' writing skills and to place learning Korean in a meaningful context. It also helps to build a positive attitude toward Korean language learning. To administer the reflective journal in class, the instructor has to keep in mind several guidelines as well as practical considerations. The instructor also needs to be aware of some limitations and to try to find ways to modify the approach or adapt to the given classroom situations.

This research has suggested that the use of reflective journal writing could be one way to relate a foreign language class to students' lives. It also helps students motivate to not only learn a foreign or heritage language but keep them interested. For instructors, it provides another way of improving students' language skills in a meaningful context.

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Part XII

Linguistic Analysis and its Application to Teaching

Socio-pragmatic functions of the interactive sentence ender *–ney* from the politeness perspective[1]

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1. Introduction

A few studies of discourse pragmatic functions of sentence ender –ney[2] has been undertaken by several scholars (H. Lee 1991, Martin 1992, K. Lee 1993, Lee and Lee 1994, J. Ree and H. Sohn [forth coming], Y. Cho, et al. to name a few). The sentence ender (hereafter SE) -ney is identified roughly as: indirect assertion, the speaker's counter expectation, and an instant (spontaneous) reaction to a piece of newly perceived information. This SE -ney is often observed in modern poetry, as in "San Yu Hwa (Mountain flowers)" written by a famous Korean poet, Kim So Wol (1902-1934) as in (1).

(1)
san-ey-nun kkoch phi-ney/kkoch-i phi-ney.
Flowers on a mountain bloom/The flowers bloom,
Kal. Pom. Yelum epsi kkoch-i phi-ney
Fall, Spring, and summer through, the flowers bloom. (translated by Peter Lee 1990).
....

The *-ney* in this poem expresses the poet's self-addressed exclamatory statement upon spontaneously discovering a flower growing on a mountain. However, we notice the discourse phenomena differently as in (2):

(2) a. *pananakapissa-ney.* Gee, bananas are expensive (I am surprised.)!
b. *pananakapissa-ney-yo.* I think, bananas are expensive.

The sentence ender *–ney* in (2a.) is as *–ney* in (1) a monologue simply expressing the speaker's surprise when the spontaneously notices an event that "bananas are expensive," which may contradict his expectation or simply be a surprise. Such expression does not require the presence of an addressee. On the other hand, (2.b) is an interactive statement attached by informal polite form *–yo*, directed to an addressee, expressing the speaker's spontaneous registering of something with an expectation that the addressee will react. This monologue-type self-addressing function of *-ney* has evolved to the interactive function as in, while retaining the original meaning as figure 1.

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[1] I would like to thank to professor Ho-min Sohn for his insightful comments on earlier drafts.

[2] The sentence ender *–ney* in this paper should not be confused in the familiar speech style –ney.

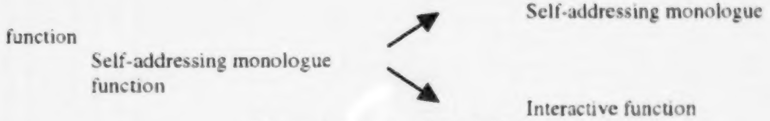

Figure 1. Functional shift of SE *–ney*

C. Cho (1982, 1999) characterized SE *-ney* in contemporary speech style as a non-deferential, marked informal speech style, in contrast to [E], the unmarked informal speech style, whereas both H. Sohn (1986) and H. Lee and J. Lee (1994) classified the *-ney* as an intimate speech style. SE *–ney* is parallel in speech style to the unmarked [E] as examples in (3):

(3) a. *pananakapissa-ney-yo.* I think, bananas are expensive.
b. *pananakapissa-a-yo.* Bananas are expensive.

The SE *–ney* as in (3.a) has noticeably increased in usage in Korean conversation. Study shows that *–ney* is used second most frequently in contemporary Korean conversation in my study. Frequency was calculated by counting the number of times that interactive sentence enders occurred in my data compiled from conversations from TV, radio programs, and face-to-face interactions between 1997-99. The complied data shows that frequency of usage of Korean sentence enders in contemporary as follows: *–ney* (equal to *-telakwu*) marked 14%, *-ketun* and *–nuney* marked 11% each, -nikka and *-kwun* 2% each, others *(-ci, kwu, -canha, kela, lay, key* etc.) mark 14%, while the [E] marked 32% (Yuen 2001).

The sentence ender *–ney* in (3.a) which has interactive function will thus be called interactive sentence ender (ISE) *–ney* in this paper. My immediate question is that why Korean speakers use the ISE
-ney frequently and preferably in conversation. I will observe the functions of ISE -ney across a broad spectrum in variety of social contexts.

Scholars (cf. Goffman 1967, Gumperz 1982, Cohen 1994, and Schiffrin 1994) claim that the speaker's immediate social context determines the selection of linguistic features in conversation. We will observe when, for what purposes, and under what conditions the ender is used in speech acts within given social contexts. I will explore how they are used in a wide variety of interactive discourse contexts. When the ISE *–ney* is used in conversation, its function seems to be composite of the speaker's self-address regarding a spontaneous discourse or his recollection of an event and hedging function to mitigate propositional content to express speaker's politeness. The ISE *-ney* is also used to attract the attention of the addressee for the purpose of enhancing conversation.

The socio-pragamtic funcion analysis of interactive sentence enders takes into account the following factors: (i) what message they convey, (ii) in what situation they may be used, (iii) who uses them, (iv) and what social and interactional identities are relevant to the interaction (cf. Schiffrin 1994:135).

Teaching Korean epistemic sentence ender modal is a very difficult task in the Korean language classroom.[3] This study can aid teachers teaching of Korean in better understanding the usage of ISE –ney, its functional usage and its meaning.

2. Data

The data are collected from various media genres: TV soap operas, TV and radio talk shows, and personal conversations during 1997-1999. Yale Romanization is used to transcribe Korean expressions. The abbreviations for the categories are marked as capital as follows:

AC = Accusative particle, DEC = declarative sentence type suffix, HN = honorific suffix, IN = indicative mood suffix, MD = modifier suffix, NM = nominative particle, PL = plural particle, POL = polite, PST = past, PRS = prospective suffix, Q = question marker, QT = quotative particle, SUP = suppositive suffix, TC = topic-contrast, C = clause, S = sentence, NP = noun phrase, VP = verb phrase, Comp = complement.

This chapter is composed of four sections. Section 3 will review current interpretations of -ney's discourse function, section 4 will discuss my proposed discourse analysis, section 5 is conclusion, and aper section 6 will discuss pedagogical implication.

The next section will review the current interpretation of ISE *–ney*.

3. A review of current interpretations of ISE *–ney*

In this section, let us review some current interpretations of the ISE *–ney*. As alluded to in introduction, only recently have scholars begun to focus on ISE *–ney*'s discourse functions. ISE *-ney*
is often translated as "I think," "you see," or tag question in English.

Martin (1992) characterizes the SE *-ney* in contemporary Korean as an indirect assertion often used when one talks to oneself, as in the following examples (4):

(4) a. *khu-ney* It is big..
b. *chwup-ney.* It is cold.

He claims that -ney in (4) functions as a "pleasant surprise" meaning "aha, now I see" in English.[4]

K. Lee (1993:11) claims that sentence ender *-ney* denotes the speaker's attitude toward a proposition, and his assessment of the addressee. When the speaker thinks of a situation in a certain way and then sees evidence which contradicts his original assumption, *-ney* may be used as in (5):

(5) *Chelswu-ka* *ka-ss-ney.* Chelswu has gone.

He maintains that *-ney* in (5) is used to indicate that the speaker's expectation "Chelswu is home!" is contradicted. In other words, the speaker expects that "Chelswu did not go," but he finds out that "Chelswu is gone." The evidence that the speaker sees is contrary to his original assumption. However, K. Lee argues that *-ney* in (5) can also be seen from the addressee's perspective. That is, the speaker assumes that the addressee thinks that Chelswu did not go, but the speaker knows that Chelswu went. Thus, the speaker knows that Chelswu's leaving is news and will surprise to the addressee as in (6):

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[3] Epistemic modality is learned much later than agent-oriented modality in English and other language. (cf.Choi 1995)

[4] He indicates functional similarity between the enders ***-ney*** and ***-kwun***.

(6) *Chelswu-ka ka-ss-ney. Po-ala.* Chelswu has gone. Look.

He states that "*po-ala* (look)" supports evidence of his claim that the addressee's original assumption is mistaken.

H. Lee and J. Lee (1994) maintain that SE *-ney* is constitutive of the intimate speech style (panmal) as in (7):

(7) *Eme, ceng mal wha na-sy-ess-ney.* Oh, you must be really mad (NEY).

They point out three semantic and pragmatic functions of the ISE *–ney*: (A) to confirm the addressee's feeling and thought about a topic; (B) to express simple description; (C) to ask the addressee to agree with the propositional contents that he has conveyed. Consider the following examples (8) (by Lee and Lee 1994):

(8) a. *i-kkomak-to mwul-i coh-keyss-ney-yo.*
This clam must be fresh.
b. *ecey-pam pwuthe kule-ney-yo.*
It has been so since last night.
c. *kulem, yosayn mayil kasikeyss-ney-yo?*
Then, you do go there everyday now?

Lee and Lee (1994) claim that *–ney* in (8.a) is used to confirm the addressee's feeling and thought about a topic. (8.b) expresses simple descriptions. (c) is an example in which the speaker asks the addressee to agree with the propositional contents that he has conveyed.

As alluded to above, these examples have largely been limited to the level of discourse sentences, or mostly formulate by the scholars for the purpose of their analyses. Following data are telephone conversations. H. Lee (1991) asserts that SE *-ney* is used to express a spontaneous reaction to newly perceived information in the following conversation (9):

(9)
a. K: *ilcey* *kath-untey.*
Japan:product same-UNTEY
It seems like it's "made in Japan", isn't it?

b. H: *ung?* *an-i-l-kke-l*
yes? NEG-be-PRS-fact-AC
What? I presume it's not.
c. K: *an-i-a?*
NEG-be-IE
It's not?
d. H: *Yamaha* *ecce-kwu sse-iss-nun-ke* *kath-untey.*
Yamaha bla:bla-and write-exit-MD-fact same-UNTEY.
It looks like "Yamaha something" is written.

(H and K having finished assembling the bed)
e. K: *ah* *hullywunghay.*
oh wonderful
Oh, it's wonderful.
(K now sees what is written on the bed)
f. *HANDY BED-la-kwu* *sse-noh-ass-ess-te-n* *ke-kwuna.*
Handy bed-DEC-QT write-put-PST-PST-RET-MDfact-UNASSIM
(I see) It was "handy bed" that I saw written!
(K trying to lie down on the bed)
g. K: *ahyu*
gee
Gee!
h. H: *mocala-ci-anh-e?*
short-NOM-NEG-INT
Isn't it too short?
i. K: (Stretching his body]
↗ *ahyuu* *kkok* *tule-ka-ney.*
gee exactly enter-go-UNASSIM
Gee, (contrary to our expectation) it just fits me!

H. Lee claims that the speaker in (9.i) is conveying newly perceived information. In contrast with the utterance in (9.a), K discovered that the bed is just the right size, which is not what he expected. Thus, Lee claims that -ney denotes the speaker's realization that the bed "fits me (fine)." (9.i) which contradicts his assessment of (9.h). H. Lee (1991) also compares that -ney to *-kwun*. He characterized the SE -kwun as being similar to the function of -ney in that it also marks the speaker's perception of new information. But that the difference between *-ney* and *-kwun* is the realization of "factual and non-factual information." That is, -ney is used to express "factual realization," whereas *-kwun* expresses "non-factual realization." in (10). (10.a) may be used when a speaker greets an unexpected guest, while (10.b) is used when an expected guest arrives:

(10) a. *Wass-ney.* (You) have come.
b. *Wass-kwun.* (You) have come.

As we have seen in the above argument, as sentence enders, *-ney* is used either from an addressee's or a speaker's perspective to express a spontaneous emotive reaction such as surprise, admiration, or sympathy toward new information.

So far, I have reviewed current interpretations of the ISE *-ney*. Their studies provide insightful to understand the functions of ISE *–ney*. However, as we have observed, the pragmatic functions of *-ney* differ slightly according to each scholar. The insightful though the interpretations may be, many counter examples exist that have not yet been explained. In fact the interactive ISE *–ney* is used in a wide variety of interactive discourse contexts. The existing interpretations do not sufficiently consider the social contexts within which -ney discourse functions are defined. For example, consider the following expression (11):

(11) *o lay kan man i ney –yo.* It has been long time (NEY).

The ISE *-ney* may denote many different socio-pragmatic functions in conversations. Depending on the speech context, *-ney* might function differently. For example, when the speaker meets his friend unexpectedly on the street, the -ney will denote his spontaneous surprise upon discovering his friend. However, the expression may also be used when a boy visits his girl friend's house, and he greets her at her door. In the latter case, *-ney* does not denote the same function as that of the -ney in the former case.

Let's consider the following example (12). A college girl (K) is invited to see a movie tomorrow by her male friend (C). The girl refuses his offer.

(12) a. C: *nayil* *yenghwa po-le-ka-l-lay-yo?*
tomorrowmovie see-to-go-INT-POL
Would you like to go watch movie tomorrow?
b. K: *nayil* *sihem-i* *iss-ney-yo.*
tomorrow exam-NM exit-NEY-POL
I have an exam tomorrow (NEY).

K refuses C's invitation using a scheduled exam as an excuse, saying "I have an exam tomorrow (NEY)" in (12.b). However, she does not flatly state her refusal. K's response is an indirect refusal in which she uses "an exam tomorrow" as an excuse to decline his invitation. Compare the following example (13) to (12). The (13) is an English example proposed by Searle (1975: 62):

(13) Student X: Let's go to the movies tonight.
Student Y: I have to study for an exam.

As Searle notes, Y's utterance constitutes a rejection of X's proposal, but not by virtue of its actual meaning, but by virtue of its being an illocutionary act. Searle claims that such response is an inferential strategy employed to refuse a proposal. If one compares the Korean (12) and English (13) examples, the propositional contents appear to be similar. In Searle's analysis, K also uses an inferential strategy to refuse C's proposal. However, K in (12) may answer using [E] instead of affixing *–ney* as (b'):

b'. K: *nayil* *sihem-i* *iss-e-yo.*
tomorrow exam-NM exit-E-POL
I have an exam tomorrow (E).

The response (b') is to transmit the information directly (Shin 1986)
. K's utterance goes one step further to avoid the imposition influenced by the ending [E]. Thus, *-ney* represents speaker's attitude to reduce the force of her refusal and leaves the decision to the addressee. The addressee might anticipate another opportunity after Y's exam. The speaker does not communicate only her own "side," but urges the addressee to consider her conflicting exam schedule. Thus, the addressee may interpret the situation not as a rejection, but simply as one missed opportunity, and look forward to another time. Since refusal is a Face Threatening Act (FTA) in Brown and Levinson's politeness theory, a speaker needs to mitigate the force of the utterance. In accordance with Fraser's assertion that mitigation is used to diminish an unwelcome effect. The ISE *–ney* is used to mitigate to diminish an unwelcome effect that of refusal in face-to-face interaction. Thus, I observed the use of *–ney* in various speech contexts. Socio-cultural knowledge of the speaker regulates her use of ISE *-ney*. In other words, social factors, such as the speakers' social status, roles, and

relations with the addressee in the interaction regulate her selection of linguistic features. Such regulation is a context-bound process of interpretation by means of which participants assess each other's intentions, and on which they base their responses.

The discourse pragmatic analysis emphasizes social context, which has long drawn much attention from pragmaticians. For example, Levinson (1992:21) defines pragmatics as a study of the relation between language and context that is basic to an account of language understanding. Jakobson (1960), Lyons (1977), Ochs (1989), Cook (1990), Holmes (1995) and many others maintain that linguistic features signal social contexts in which the speaker's interactional goals and internal/external conditions are grounded. Ochs (1989), in particular, defines the notion of "context" as the social and psychological world in which the language user operates at any given time. According to Lyons (1977: 574), knowledge of one's social role and status in speech events whether, as speaker or addressee, involves notions of relative social standing, knowledge of spatial and temporal location, knowledge of formality level, knowledge of the medium (roughly, the code or style of spoken varieties of a language), knowledge of appropriate subject matter, and knowledge of appropriate province (or domain determining the register of a language). Thus, to understand an utterance's meaning in a given context, the interpreter must be cognizant of the entirety of the participants' knowledge of the world (or mutual knowledge) in conversation. In this paper, therefore, an extensive analysis of various pragmatic functions for the ISE *-ney* will be made in relation to the social contexts in which they occur.

4. Analysis of socio-pragmatic functions of ISE *–ney* in discourse

In this section, we will view several examples exhibiting the socio-pragmatic functions (SPFs) of the ISE *–ney* in discourse. The first conversation (14) I will introduce is a casual conversation between a taxi driver and a passenger in a cab. The conversation is concerned with traffic conditions.

(14)

a. T: *thoyoil-i-lase* *kil-i* *manhi* *makhi-ney-yo.*
↗ saturday-be-because road-NM many congest-NEY-POL
Since it is a Saturday, the road is congested (NEY).

b. P: *kele-ney-yo.*
↗ so-NEY-POL.
It is so (NEY)

The taxi driver (T) in (14.a) makes an effort to begin a conversation with the passenger (P) about what they both perceive at the present time. Saturday road congestion is common knowledge for those who live in metropolitan cities like Seoul. Both taxi driver and passenger perceive the traffic at the same time. Just as weather is a universally "safe" topic for conversation (cf. Brown and Levinson 1987:112), traffic congestion is useful as an icebreaker. Both speakers in (14.a) and (14.b) used *-ney* in their utterances. We can recognize the speaker's attitude toward the addressee in his intention to be polite to the addressee. Suppose that the utterance is marked by *-ci* such as *thoyoil-i-lase kil-i manhi makhi-ci-yo.* "because it is a Saturday, the traffic is heavy (ci)." Marin (1991) states that *-ci* expresses the speaker's insistence and reassurance, often inviting confirmation or agreement from the addressee. The illocutionary force of *-ci* is stronger than the use of *-ney*. If [E] was used, the speaker would be conveying only experiential and evidential information in a straightforward manner. The utterance with [E] does not invite the addressee to participate in the conversation to the extent that *-ney* does. The self-addressed monologue speech style *-ney* in (14 a) is used to get the addressee's attention in order to initiate interaction. Responding with *-ney* in (14.b) is used to enhance a conversation through the affirming of the speaker's observation. The intonation contour in (14.a) takes on a rising-like intonation (**# 2-12#** for ***#ney yo#***) which assures the addressee that the statement is true. The intonation contour in (14.b) for ***#ney yo#*****(#2.1#)** marks agreement with the addressee.

The following (15) is an excerpt from a TV soap opera. A brother-in-law talks to his sister-in-law who is waiting for her husband to return.

(15) (M dries his hair with towel)
a. M: *Hyengnim* *nuc-u-si-ney-yo.*
↗ older brother late-HN-NEY-POL.
Older brother is late (NEY).
b. S: *kule-key-yo.*
so-ADV-POL
I think so
c. M: *taymwun cey-ka yele-tuli-lthey-nikka hyengswu-nim cwumwu-sey-yo.*
gate I-NM open-HN-PRO-NIKKA sister-in-law-HM sleep-HN-POL
I will open the door for him. So, please to go bed. I tell you.
d. S: *anyey-yo. acik an-coll-yeyo.*
no-POL. yet not-sleepy-[E]-POL.
It's OK. I am not sleepy yet.

e. S: *tolyen-nim.*
brother-in-law-HN
M
(M looks at her. Bell rings)
f. M: *hyeng-nim o-sy-ess-na-pwa-yo.* *hyeng-nim-i-* yey-yo?
big brother-HN come-HN-PST-seems-POL Big brother-HN-be- E-POL
It seems big brother has to come back. Are you big brother?
g. J: *kulay.*
yes
Yes.
h. M: *nuc-usy-ess-ney-yo.*
↗ late-HN-PST-NEY-POL
You are late (NEY).
i. J: *ung.*
yes
Yes.
j. S: (as she walks down)
way ileh-key nuc-ess-e?
why this-ADV late-PST-INT
Why are you so late?[E]

Conversation (15) begins with M addressing his sister-in-law (S) about his brother, (J)'s late return as *Hyeng-nim nucu-si-ney-yo* "older brother is late, isn't he?" in (15.a) with a rising tone (#1.3# for #*ney.yo*). When his brother finally gets home, M tells his brother, *nuc-us-yess-ney-yo*. 'you are late (NEY) in (15.h) (#2.1# for #*ney.yo*#). A rising tone in (15.a) is reassuring agreement from his sister-in-law, whereas a falling (15.h) clarifies his opinion politely. *-Ney* is used both in (15.a), and (15.h) by J's younger brother, M. If utterance (a) were marked by [E] as in (a'):

a'. *hyeng-nim nuc-usi-[E]-yo*. You are late (E).

it conveys a fact that his brother is late straightforwardly. If utterance (h) were also marked by [E] as in (h') with a falling tone:

h' *nuc-usi-[E]-yo*. You are late (E).

The expression might sound like an accusation. Both (15.a) and (15.h) simultaneously demonstrates the speaker's sympathy and empathy toward the addressee. Let's observe expression (15.j) uttered by S who is J's wife. The sentence ender is switched from *-ney* to [E]. [E] in (15.j) is used when the speaker conveys a message directly without reservation to express S's displeasure, and as she requests an explanation from J for his tardiness. Thus, the SPF of ISE *-ney* in this context expresses the speaker's empathy toward the addressee and mitigates the force of direct assertion.

The following example (16) also shows the mitigating function of ISE *-ney*. In a room, a mother talks to her eight years old son.

(16)

→ Mother: *camos-i* *tto* *cec-ess-ney.*
pajamas-NM again wet-PST-NEY
(your or his) pajamas are wet again (NEY).

Child....

A mother found that her young son wets his pajamas again. The son wets his pajamas quite often and the mother is worried. When the mother finds that her child's pajamas are wet again, she says to her son "(your) pajamas are wet (NEY)." *–Ney* may be used as the speaker's self-addressed exclamatory statement in respect to her spontaneous discovery of her son's mishap, even if her son is not present. However, mother used *–ney* when her son is present. The propositional content "the pajamas are wet again." could be a spontaneous response after she makes the discovery, but the mother's intention is neither to criticize nor to embarrass her child in the presence of her son. Mother may say with using (E) form to convey the same content as in (16')

(16') *camos-i* *tto* *cec-ess-e.*
pajamas-NM again wet-PST-E
(your) pajamas are wet again (E).

(16') will be straightforward and assertive. Thus, mother speaks in a monologue fashion, but expects her son is listening to her words. The function of ISE -ney serves to reduce the force of a direct assertion aimed at her child. A rising tone from 1 to 2 (#3-1-2# for #*cec-ess-ney*#) also indicates she is reminding her son of the incident, and to be careful in the future.

ISE *-ney* is also used to tone down the illocutionary force of denial, sarcasm, and refusal.

The following conversation (17) is an excerpt from TV soap opera. *–ney* is used for denial. A sister-in-law (S) visits her newly wed brother's home and converses with his brother (Y)'s family. Y has recently remarried with H.

(17)
a. S: *ne sen han-pen pwa-po-l-lay?*
you blind-date one-time try-see-PRS-INT
Do you want to have a blind date?
b. U: *ai. komo*
ah. aunty
Ah, no aunty.
c. S: *cipan-to kwaynchan-a. namca apeci-ka*
family background-also good-INTman father-NM
kwukyengkiepchey kwukcang-i-tela
national enterprize chief-be-TELA..
His family background is good also. I heard that the man's father is a chief of a government enterprise.
d. U: (laugh)
ce-n sinkyeng-ssu-ci-ma-sey-yo. komo. ce-n kyelhon an-hay-yo.
I-TC worry-use-do-NM-not-HN-POL aunty. I-TC marry do not-POL
Don't worry about me aunty. I will not marry anyone.
e. S: *ani mwes ttaymwun-ey kyelhon-ul an-hay. Kulikwu ne*
no what because-of mary-AC not-do and you
apeci emeni sinhon saynghwal ni-ka elmana
father mother honeymoon living you-NM how much
panghay-ha-kwu iss-nun-ci al-ki-na-hay?
obstacle-do-and exist-MD-whether know-NOM-as much as-do?
Oh, why do you not marry? And do you know, how you get in the way of your newly wed father and mother?
f. U: (....)
g. H: *ai komo. ku malssum-un com isang-ha-ney-yo*
→ ah aunty the talk-TC little strange-do-NEY-POL.
Ah, aunt, you talk a little strange (NEY).
h. Y: *mal-ul hay-twu kkok...*
talk-AC do-even just...
Whenever you talk you....
i. U: (laugh)
ce sicip ponay-lyekwu komo-lang komopwu cakcen-saywe
I marry send-intend aunt-with uncle plan-build

o-sye-ss-na-pwa-yo.
come-HN-PST-seem-POL.

(laugh) I think, you, and uncle have planned to marry me off.
U is a daughter from Y's previous marriage who lives with them(Y.H). S, who is Y's younger sister, and H's sister-in-law, is visiting Y's family. In the conversation, S is offering to arrange a blind date with an eye to marriage, and even urges U to get married soon (17.a). U responds immediately by saying "not to worry about her" with [E], "I am not going to marry [E]." In (17.d), S replies to U, saying U is imposing on the newly wed couple in (17.e). Such a statement (17.e) embarrasses everybody in the conversation, especially H and Y, the newlyweds. Embarrassed, H immediately defends against her own "face loss" and reacts by uttering (17.g) with *-ney* to cover her embarrassment with a rising tone (*#2.3#* for *#ney.yo#*). Y also joins in denying S's statement (17.h). In addition, U also tries to save the situation in (17.i). All three, H, U, and Y try to minimize their mutual "face-loss" caused by S. Even though the participants know S is concerned about her niece's happiness, her comments embarrass everyone present. Thus, H responds immediately to restore everyone's "face loss" by proclaiming her embarrassment in a direct manner. But attaching the hedging device *com* "a little" and ISE *-ney*. However, neither Y nor H say "no" directly; instead, they allude to their uncomfortable feelings indirectly. In Korean culture, the relationship between sisters-in-law is very vulnerable. A daughter has precedence over the daughter-in-law in Korean family hierarchy. Thus, it is difficult for H to confront with S directly. In the Korean family, the social distance between sisters-in-law is rarely narrowed to the extent that they can use intimate speech style [panmal]. Even though H is older than S, and she is the wife of S's older brother, H should to use a deferential speech style toward S in accordance with Korean family norms. In the conversation, H plays two social roles: sister-in-law and stepmother to U. H's proposition, "you are talking a little strangely" could be construed as a direct confrontation and regarded as an FTA toward S (Brown and Levinson 1987). So, H requires a linguistic strategy not to direct confrontation but restore "face loss". To this end, H must balance the appearance of a "challenge" with a show of delicacy toward S, and she does so by employing the ISE –ney in her utterance. H addresses S as komo, which is a kinship term meaning "one's father's sister". H also uses a deferential word malssum "talk" and a hedge *com* (lit. a little) which are used conventionally in many face-threatening cases. If H were to use the sentence ender [E] instead of *-ney*, H would be confronting her sister-in-law S directly. Y is subsequently embarrassed by S's remark and tries to repair his "loss of face" by saying *mal-ul hay-to kkok....* "whenever you talk you... in (h)" to S. Y's utterance is elliptical, but the participants all understand what he is implying. Such represents a cooperative effort on Y's part in two ways to restore the "loss of face" initiated by H: First, Y's utterance is incomplete. An incomplete utterance violates Grice's the Quantity Maxim as well as the Manner Maxim. However, such an ellipsis is associated with negative politeness strategy. Brown and Levinson (1987) maintain that "face is something that is emotionally invested, and that can be lost, maintained, or enhanced, and must be constantly attended to in interactions. Face is tied up with notions of being embarrassed, humiliated, or losing face (p.20).

Above, we observe two interesting aspects of language application between H and Y. The vocabulary, syntactic structure, and intonation used by Y are more indirect than those used by H. The vocabulary Y uses denotes no special meaning, but implies what he, the speaker, wants to say. H, on the other hand, selects expressions, which are clear and unambiguous. Secondly, Y speaks with a toned-down voice, whereas H speaks with a question-like intonation. Question-like intonations may request an explanation from the addressee; but a toned-down intonation coupled with an incomplete utterance sounds "soft", and does not require any explanation from the addressee. Incidentally, this proves that there are differences in lexical and syntactic levels between women and men in their uses of language, and also challenges the stereotypical understanding that women speak more indirectly than men do (cf. Lakoff 1973, Key 1972). Suppose H said (17.g') *ai, komo malssum-i com isang-hay-yo* " ah, aunty, you talk a little strangely [E]." Such a statement could be perceived as a direct challenge.

Let's compare the use of *-ney* with *-kwun*, which, it is claimed, has the same function as -ney in certain "urgent" cases. Suppose that H had used *-kwun*, *malssum-i com isanha-kwun-yo*, "you talk a little strangely (KWUN)" instead of *-ney*. S might receive this as a challenge. As pointed out earlier, -kwun is used when the speaker is assured that his/her judgment is correct. In other words, *-kwun* expresses speaker's side. Thus, the expression with *-kwun* might sound emotional, and be challenged if the addressee questions a judgment or considers him/her to be wrong, misguided or unreasonable. Therefore, *-ney* plays a big role in minimizing immediate challenge, softening brusque expressions, and restoring "face loss." The -ney in (17.g) might be used in an emotional situation to soften the force of one's demand for an explanation, while at the same time reducing the strong force of denial.

In the following conversation (18), *-ney* is used when the speaker refuses of an offer. The conversation takes place between two college friends, P(male) and M (female).

(18)
a. P: *ne* *5-kyosi* *kkuthna-myen* *swuep* *eps-ci?*
you 5th class finish-if class not:exit-Q?
You have no class after fifth period, do you?
b. M: *way?*
why
Why?
c. P: *na-twu* *5-kyosi-ka* *ttayng-i-ya.* *kkutna-kwu*
kitali-l-key.
I-also 5th-class-NM finish-be-INT finish-and
wait-PRS-INT
nay-ka *cip-kkaci thayweta-cwu-l-key.*
I-NM house-to ride-give-PRS-INT
The fifth period is the last class for me too. I will wait for you after class. I will give you a ride home.
d. M: *ne* *cha* *sa-ss-e?*
you car buy-PST-INT
Have you bought a car?
e. P: *ung.*
yes
Yes.
f. M: *neuy-apeci* *kwutwusoy-lo* *somwun-na-si-n* *pwun-i-n-tey*
your-father miser-with rumor-come-HN-MD person-be-
NTEY
cha *sa-nun-kehelak-hay-cwu-sy-ess-e?*
car but-MD-thing approve-do-give-HN-PST-Q?
How could your father who is well known to be a miser allow you to buy a car?
g. P: *nay-ton-ulo* *sa-ss-e.* *apeci* *sinsey* *an-ci-kwu.*

my-money-with buy-PST-INT father debt not-have-and
I bought it with my money. I am not indebted to my father.

h. M: *ne-n* *mwusun* *ton-i* *kuleh-key manh-a?*
you-TC what money-NM so-ADV many-INT
How do you have so much money?

i. P: *mwe* *ta* *pangpep-i* *iss-ci.* *kkutna-kwu*
haksayng what all way-NM exist-PRS finish-and
student
hoykwan *aph-ey* *iss-e.*
center front-in exist-INT
I have a way (you know). After class, wait for me in front of the Student Service Center.

j. M: *tway-ss-ney-yo.*
↗ OK-PST-NEY-POL
(No). That's OK (NEY).
(walking away)

k.P: ....

P and M have known each other since childhood. P offers M a ride home. But M manages to refuse P's offer (18.j) with *-ney* only after a long exchange. Their conversation illustrates the several processes involved in the Korean refusal style. In the beginning of the conversation, P does not immediately offer "M" a ride home. Instead, P asks M about her schedule: "you have no class after the 5th period, do you? (18.a)." M responds to P bluntly with a question "why?" (18.b). She does not give any answer to P. P offers her a ride home (18.c). M responds with another irrelevant question, "did you buy a car?"(18.d). Her response still does not address the offer as stated. P briefly answers "yes" (18.e). She distracts him by initiating a conversation on an irrelevant topic. While never flatly refusing, she overtly confronts. After a long exchange, P interprets M's lack of refusal as consent, and tells her where to meet him (18.i). At this point, M finally says "I am fine (NEY)" which implies "no." Pursuing their interaction, M might want to refuse, but she avoids saying "no" directly, as it will cause him embarrassment. When she finally refuses, she switches her speech style from intimate (non-deferential) to polite (deferential) style. The M uses the intimate form between line (18.a) to (18.i), but only when she finally refuses, does she switch to the polite form, in addition to replacing final suffix [E] to *-ney*. This exchange would find it strange. Speech level is often switched in Korean articulating refusals. To mitigate an FTA, interactants often use deference politeness as a strategy (cf. Blum-Kulka 1997:174, Schiffrin 1994). Blum-Kulka posits two major types of refusal in family discourse: internal mitigation and external mitigation. Internal mitigation is expressed through tone of voice, affective nicknames, and solidarity markers, while external mitigation is expressed through appeals to reason. However, sudden switches of speech level without discussion from intimate to polite -yo can be interpreted as impolite or show that a speaker wants to keep a certain distance. In this context, the sudden switching of speech level may imply an impolite expression of refusal. Not only -yo, but also the form -ney was used in the dialogue at the very end, when M was obliged to make a definite refusal to P's offer of a ride. Verbose exchange and redundant chat may be used as "internal mitigation" to diffuse the force of one's refusal. We observe M's effort to avoid saying "no" in the interaction. Such a manner of expression is widely observed among college students when they refuse an offer. It seems that there is no conventional speech level to compensate for this refusal. M and Y's conversation reminds us of Schiffirin's statement (p.415) "language of discourse is primarily a social interactional phenomenon." The interactants display linguistic socialization until they reach the goal of their conversation. Sentence ender -ney is used to achieve the goal of social interaction. M's choice of -ney mitigates the force of her refusal. As the [E] form would be too straightforward, and no conventional sentence enders can be used, M might affix *-yo* to compensate for his condescension toward P.

In the following conversation (19), *-ney* is used when the speaker wishes to communicate her opinion minimally and adopt a neutral position toward the other interlocutors.

(19)
a. M: (Eating)
hyengswu-nim hyeng-nim-hanthey iyaki tul-usy-ess-eyo?
sister-in-law-HN older brother-HN-from story hear-HN-PST-POL
Did you hear about the story from my brother?
b. S: *mwe-l-yo?*
what-AC-POL?
About what?
c. M: *mwuin-to iyaki-yo.*
uninhabited-island story-POL
About the story of an uninhabited island.
d. S: *mwuin-to iyaki-yo?*
uninhabitied-island story-POL?
About the story of an uninhabitied island?
e. M: *hyeng-nim iyaki an-ha-sy-ess-kwun-yo.*
older brother-HN-story not do-HN-PST-KWUN-POL
He did not tell you (KWUN).
f. J: (Eat without a word)
g. S: *mwuin-to iyaki-ka mwe-ntey-yo?*
uninhabitated-island story-NM what-UNTEY-POL?
What is the story of the uninhabited island, can you tell me (UNTEY)?
h. M: *ce khephi kwanko-ha-canh-ayo. ku hoysa sacang-nim-i*
I coffee ad-do-you know-POL the company president-HN-NM
As you know, I am advertising Coffee. The president of the company
Se-hayan-ey kayin soyu mwuin-to-lul kac-ko-
West-coast-in private own uninhabited-island-AC have-and
kyey-sey-yo. philyoha-ta-myen yelum-ey sikwu-tul-ilang
-be-HN-POL need-DEC-if summer-on family-PL-with
(He) owns an uninhabited island.
keki w-ase hyuka ponay-la-kwu-yo.
there come-vocation spend-DEC-QT-POL.
He told me that if I want, I can spend my summer vacation with family there.
i. S: (M glance at them)

mwuin-to-myen *salam-tul-i* *eps-ese* *coh-keyss-ney-*
yo.
uninhabited-island-if person-PL-NM not exist good-will-NEY-POL
If it is an island with no people living on it. It would be good. I think (NEY).
j. M.: *cincca* *mwukonghay* *sem-i-lay-yo.*
really pollution island-be-QT-POL
I was told that it really is an unpopulated island.

This conversation is an excerpt from a family conversation at the breakfast table. Unlike in western society, the meal table in a traditional Korean family is not a place for socialization (cf. Blum-Kulka 1997). Korean children are often told not to talk while they eat. The participants in this situation belong to a modern, middle-class family, but they maintain the character of an extended family in that they observe traditional family customs. The speaker S is an independent career woman. At the breakfast table, Y(mother-in-law), J(husband of S), M (brother-in-law), and S are also present. M asks S's opinion about having a family summer outing at an uninhabited island. M asks S if she has heard about the idea (19.a). In the preceding statement (19.d), M presumes that J, his older brother, has not told S about it. The form *-kwun* (19.e) denotes M's inference, which he presumes, must be true. However, S uses *-ney* when she states her opinion that 'the deserted island would be a nice place "because no people will be around (NEY)."

in (19.K). S does not reveal her own feeling on this subject, but just comments, reasoning that "salam-i epes-ese because there is no people." S, especially in the presence of her mother-in-law, marks a minimal assumption. S is conscious of her role as a daughter-in-law in the presence of her mother-in-law, so she does not state her opinion directly. (Recall M's response in [19.e], in which M stated his assumption using *–kwun*.) S uses *-ney* instead of *-kwun*, when she makes her statement "*coh-keyss-ney-yo* I think, it seems good (NEY)" in (19.i). Both *–ney* and *–kwun* denote a speaker's inference. But *–kwun* is used when the speaker assumes his inference is true. On the contrary, *–ney* is used to express one's inference minimally. S's intention is clear in this conversation. She tries to mark her assumption and opinion minimally by affixing *–ney*, so that the force of her assertion is reduced. This violates Grice's Quality and Manner Maxims. If [E] were used, it would reveal the speaker's subjective judgment and reinforce her opinion in deference to her mother-in-law. *-Ney* denotes inquiry about another's opinion, while *–kwun* implies that the speaker believes his statement is true in . *–Kwun* does not invite the addressee's opinion. Both [E] and -kwun have strong illocutionary force, whereas *-ney* is addressee/other-oriented and invites the addressee to contribute to the conversation. Thus, *-ney* is more polite than *-kwun*.

In the following conversation (20) *-ney* is used to avoid direct expression of a speaker's inner feeling. The data is an excerpt from a TV soap opera. A woman walks along the beach with her boyfriend (M).

(20)
a. F: *ile-n* *coyongha-n* *kos-eyse* *cengmal* *sal-ko-siph-*
ney-yo.
this kind-MD quite-MDplace-at really live-and-wish-NEY-
POL
I would really like to live in such a quiet place (NEY).
b. M.: *ile-n* *kos-eyse* *sal-ko-siph-usey-yo?*
this kind-MD place-at live-and-wish-HN-POL

Would you like to live in this kind of place?
c. F.: *nulk-umyen-yo.*
old-if-POL
When [I] get old.

While walking by the seaside one afternoon. F remarks to M that the seaside is very beautiful and quiet. So, she discloses her inner feeling, saying "I would like to live in such a quiet place." affixing -ney at the end. Her boyfriend (M) uses this information as a common ground on which to build their conversation. He confirms what he has just heard by asking the directly "would you like to live in this kind of place [E]?" However, F (20.c) avoids a direct answer by telling him "when I get old." Her response may be viewed as an "escape device" by which she can indirectly express her wish. The conversation also illustrates an interesting point regarding how Korean women disclose their inner feelings. F's response in (20.c) is not directly relevant to the question posed. F avoids revealing her inner feelings directly. Furthermore, the -ney softens her propositional content by expressing her state of mind indirectly. The addressee (M) must infer what F's inner thoughts might be, and whether or not she is reconfirming her feelings toward him. Conversational convention in Korean society regards it a virtue that a woman does not express her inner feelings directly to a man. From M's point of view, he may never know F's inner thoughts unless she decides to divulge her inner feelings to him. F discloses her inner feeling by affixing –ney and thereby, confirms their relationship, with -ney softening the force her disclosure. F minimizes her wishes with
-ney on one hand, and strengthens her wish by including the adverb cengmal "really." If the proposition were conveyed with E] form in (20.a'):

(20.a'): *ile-n* *kos-eyse* *sal-ko-siph-eyo.* '
this kind-MD place-at live-want-E-POL
I want to live in such a place.

The utterance would be direct expression of her wishes (cf. Shin 1983; H. Lee 1991; K. Lee 1993). -Ney is also used to protect the speaker's social image as a young woman to be polite and hide her honest feeling which conforms to socio-culturally prescribed choices with a falling tone (#2.2.2.2.1# for #sal.ko.siph.ney.yo#).

-Ney in the following dialogue (21) also used to does mitigate the force of the a sarcastic proposition to the addressee. This conversation occurs between two sisters-in-law. C is the wife of H's younger brother. Sarcasm is an FTA Austin 1987, 1988).

(21)
a. C: *ah.* *nalssi-ka nemwu* *coh-ta.* *eti* *sophwung-ilato*
oh. weather-NM very good-DEC where picnic-even
ka-kosiph-e-yo.
go-wish-[E]-POL.
Oh. it is nice weather. I want to go picnic someplace.
b. H: icey-n wanyenhi pom-i-ya.
now-TC completely spring-be-INT
Spring in in full bloom now.
e. C: *ah.* *peckkoch iph-i* *nwun-chelem* *tteleci-ko.*
ah. cherry flower leave-NM snow-likedrop-and.
moklyen-iwhalccak phi-ko.

Magnolia-NM full bloom-and.
The cherry blossoms are falling like snow, a Magnoia blooms on the peak and
d. H: *si ssu-ko iss-ney.*
↗ Poem write-and exist-NEY.
You are writing a poem (NEY).

H's response (21.d) is an immediate reaction to the previous expression. In this situation, -ney carries the function as a "tag question" in English. It is not concerned with the orientations of addresser or addressee; but rather conveys a negative response to C's statement (21.c). Such a sarcastic implication could be further strengthened by manipulation of intonation. The intonation contour of #si ssuko iss-ney# may be #3.2.2.2.12#. If *-ney* is used as a monologue self-addressed form, for example, as in #ce salam #si ssuk# iss-ney# "(that person) is writing a poem," the intonation contour will be a falling tone (like #2.2.2.2.1#). If one uses [E] as in si ssuko iss-e, "[that person] is writing a poem" the expression becomes more direct and sarcastic in tone. Therefore ISE *-ney* in conversation (21) serves to mitigate the force of the sarcastic content.

Let's observe the following conversation (22). This conversation also is an excerpt from TV soap opera.

(22)
a. H: *nay wenko ettay-yo?*
my manuscript how-POL?
How is my manuscript?
b. S: *ney?*
yes
What?
c. H: *nay wenko mal-yey-yo.*
my manuscript talk-be-POL.
I mean my manuscript.
d. S: *ah, ney, coh-a-yo. coh-ney-yo.*
↗ ah. yes. good-E-POL good-NEY-POL
Ah. yes, it is good (E), ah, it is good, I think.
e.H: *keleh-ci-yo?*
so-PRS-POL
Is it right? isn't it?
i. S: *ah, i-ke coh-ney-yo. i-ke coh-a-yo.*
→ ah. this-thing good-NEY-POL this thing good-E-POL.
Ah, this is good, I think. This is good (E).
j. *salang-i-la-n salam-kwa ku kongkan-ey concay-ha-n-ta.*
love-be-QT-TC, person-with the space-at exist-do-IND-DEC
Love exists in the space between two people.
k. H: *keleh-c-yo?*
so-INT-POL?
Isn't that true?

The speaker uses both [E] and *-ney* forms to pay a compliment to the addressee on his manuscript. In (22.a), H asks S about his manuscript. In (22.b), S does not realize what H is talking about. Thus, H in (22.c) repeats the question with "I mean my manuscript". In (22.d), S realizes and responds, "Oh, it is good (E)" and "it is good (NEY)." In (22.i), S again repeats the same utterances "it is good (NEY)" and "it is good (E)." The speaker's choice of SE depends on the speaker's intention or purpose. Since the utterances are intended to pay a compliment to H on his manuscript, the illocutionary force can be assertive. The compliment concerns the degree to which the speaker's remarks convey some good or bad evaluation of another person and/or oneself. [E] is used to satisfy this maxim of approbation (ref. Leech 1991). Compare the two sentences: *coh-ney-yo* "it is good, I think" in (d) and (i). *-Ney* in (d) is used to tone-down her direct assertion of her previous compliment with a rising tone (#2.3# for #ney.yo) which is asking addressee's agreement meaning as "isn't it?", but *-ney* in (i) *coh-ney-yo*, "it is good, I think" expresses the speaker's spontaneous admiration with a falling tone (#2.1# for *#ney.yo#*) with affirmative tone on her compliment toward the manuscript.

4. Conclusion

This paper aimed at to find SPFs of the SE *-ney* in various contemporary Korean speech situations, from the interactive sociolinguistic perspective. We have observed the monologue-type sentence ender *–ney* evolved into an ender serving an interactive function. Study displays that SE *-ney* has diverse interactive functions across a wide range of social contexts. The primary SPFs of the SE -ney are to soften the force of utterances in contemporary conversation. When the speaker wants to reinforce her statement, the emphatic adverbs cengmal, cham "really, very," are added for balance. However, ISE *–ney* is used to attract the attention of the addressee for the purpose of enhancing conversation. This study reveals that the ISE *-ney* reflects the speaker's socio-cultural and sociolinguistic ability to operate within the set of behavioral norms determined by Korean social customs. *-Ney* is an interactive device used to invite the addressee into the interaction and denotes inquiring about the addressee's opinion, or seeking the agreement of the addressee. In using it, the speaker verifies/ clarifies her own opinion concerning what she, the speaker, has discovered. Intonation contour also plays an important role in transmitting utterances in Korean. This study also sheds light on Korean women's conversational style when engaging in refusal/denial of an offer. Such tendencies in conversational style go against the stereotypical understanding that women speak more indirectly than men do.

4. Pedagogical implications

This study suggests that teacher-front classroom does not provide opportunity for students to learn the epistemic quality of sentence ender -ney. Thus, instructional materials that provide such a socio-cultural context in the classroom need to be used (Kasper 1989). Materials such as clips excerpted from authentic interaction should be provided for students can hear and observe the actual usage of the sentence ender *–ney* by native speakers. Activities aimed at students' pragmatic development should be designed and offering opportunities for communicative practice need to be provided in classroom situations. Collecting of naturally occurring speech data, role-plays, discourse completion tasks (Cohen 1995). Instruction integrating intonation, also needs to be instructed to enhance comprehension.

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